MILLER'S BILLINGS'

ANALYTICAL AND PRACTICAL

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

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MILLER'S

ANALYTICAL AND PRACTICAL

GRAMMAR

OF THE

ENGLISH LANGUAGE,

ON THE BASIS OF BULLIONS,

CONTAINING, IN ADDITION TO OTHER NEW MATTER, A FULL COURSE OF ANALYSIS, EXAMINATION QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES ON EACH TOPIC; DIAGRAMS FOR EXERCISES ON THE VERB; FORMS FOR EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS; A SECTION ON THE STRUCTURE OF WORDS; A VOCABULARY OF SAXON, LATIN, AND GREEK ROOTS; SELECTIONS IN PROSE AND POETRY FOR ANALYSIS; AND A COMPLETE COURSE OF INSTRUCTION AND EXERCISES IN

ENGLISH COMPOSITION.

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THIRD CANADIAN EDITION.

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INTRODUCTION

TO THE SECOND CANADIAN EDITION.

We have reason to congratulate ourselves, that in most departments of study, Canadian Schools are now supplied with excellent text books, many of them prepared in the country by Canadian Teachers. In the department of English Grammar, however, it is scarcely necessary to say, that among all classes of teachers the utmost dissatisfaction is felt. It is the peculiarity of almost every English Grammar in use that, while they may be very good, or even excellent, in some department of the subject, they either entirely omit others of, at least, equal importance, or are so inaccurate, or meagre, or behind the times, in the manner of treating them, that, in many cases, it would be be better had they been altogether passed over. The consequence is, that a teacher who would make his course of instruction comprehend what is necessary to render it practically useful and give it a degree of completeness, is compelled, either to depend on oral instruction to supplement the deficiencies of the text book, or to submit to the inconvenience and needless expense of introducing several different books. To this, more than any other cause, is, doubtless, to be attributed the fact, that the study of English Grammar does not occupy that position in our schools to which its importance entitles it. Whatever opinion, therefore, may be entertained of the pretensions of the text book now presented, of this, at all events, the editor is fully assured, that both teachers and pupils will appreciate the attempt to render their labour in this department somewhat more pleasant and remunerative, and will cheerfully recognise whatever merit it may possess.

In undertaking the revision of Bullions' Analytical and Practical Grammar, the intention, in the first place, was merely to correct some of the numerous inaccuracies, and supply a few of its worst defects; but the more closely it was examined with a view to this, in the light of the latest improvements in the mode of treating and presenting the subject, the more obvious it became, that *such superficial* changes, so far from satisfying the

reasonable demands of intelligent teachers, could scarcely be expected to allay the existing dissatisfaction to an extent sufficient to procure for it even a temporary recognition. Such being the aspect of the matter, the Editor found that he had no alternative but to abandon the project altogether, or face the enquiry,—what alterations and additions must be made to supply a text book, such as is required?—what must such a book contain?—and how should the matter be presented, to bring it fully up to the standard of philosophical accuracy, which late writers, especially Morell, in his scientific treatment of the subject, has so conclusively shown it to be capable of? In prosecuting this enquiry, one *Elimination*, *Alteration*, and *Addition*, after another, was found necessary, till the original has undergone such an entire transformation, that, like the miser's stockings, it may now fairly question its own personal identity.

The opportunity of collecting facts and observing results, which an extensive acquaintance with teachers and many years experience in teaching English Grammar, have afforded the Editor, has convinced him that our best grammars are not sufficiently practical,—that with a text book adapted to the purpose, the grammar class might be made to contribute much more directly to the grand end in view, viz: *readiness*, *accuracy*, and *elegance*, *in the use of language*.

In order to remedy this defect, and render all the assistance possible to teachers who would be practical, *Examination Questions* followed by thorough *practical exercises*, are placed at proper intervals throughout the book, and a general exposition of the *Principles of English Composition* followed by a complete course of *Exercises* designed to be taken up in connection with Analysis and Syntax, is appended. A glance at these examination *Tests*, (for they are rather *tests* than questions,) will convince any one, that, so far from leading to "Mechanical teaching," they are designed and fitted to call forth the highest intellectual efforts of the pupils.

The subject of analysis has been completely re-written, and will, it is confidently believed, be found fully up to the most approved standard. Diagrams to be used in conjugating the verb,

and in oral and written exercises in parsing and in the analysis of simple and compound sentences, have been prepared, and are presented in such a manner, that they cannot fail to prove valuable aids to both teacher and pupil. The Section on the Structure of Words, followed by Examination Questions and practical Exercises on each part of speech, will supply a great want in this direction, and, taken in connection with the Vocabulary of Saxon, Latin and Greek roots, at the close, may be viewed as forming a complete and distinct text-book of itself on this important branch of the subject. The Selections in Prose and Poetry, embracing a great variety of construction, will furnish ample *exercises in analysis*, and will be found suited to the wants of every class of pupils. Most teachers will consider it a decided improvement, that correct and incorrect examples are mixed together in the exercises unde the rules of Syntax, requiring the pupil constantly to draw upon his knowledge of the subject and to apply it as he proceeds.

In conclusion, the Editor would express how much it has been a matter of constant regret to him, that he has been absolutely limited as to time. Although this circumstance has not been allowed to interfere with the general features of the book, it has prevented that careful consideration, that might, in some instances, have resulted in greater accuracy or better selections, and compelled him to avail himself of the labors of others, more especially of Morell & Anderson, (to whom he takes this opportunity of acknowledging his great indebtedness) more freely than he would under other circumstances, have felt at liberty to do.

Toronto, Canada West, July, 1866.

PREFACE

TO THE THIRD CANADIAN EDITION.

The very general favour with which the Second revised edition of this grammar has been received, as indicated by its rapid sale and the numerous expressions of approval from teachers and others, in every part of the country, has encouraged the publisher to spare no expense to render the present edition still more serviceable to teachers, and worthy of public confidence.

The quality of the paper and binding, it will be observed, is very much superior to that in the last edition, and some important alterations and additions have been made; these are not, however, of such a nature that any serious inconvenience will result from introducing this edition into classes in which the last is already in use.

The section on English Composition has been rendered much more practical and complete, by simplifying the rules and exercises on Punctuation, and by adding examination questions on the general principles of Composition and an article on the Elements of Style, and by giving it such a position as will indicate the order in which this branch of the subject should be taken up. The want of time, in preparing the last edition, rendered it necessary to omit the preparation of examination questions on the Syntax; this omission has been supplied in the present edition. These questions and exercise will effect a great saving of time to teachers, and afford valuable assistance in conducting the examination of classes. And lastly, a series of exercises, composed of sentences of common occurrence, exhibiting the most usual faults in the use of language, are presented under *one general rule*, to be examined and corrected before entering on the study and application of the more special principles of Syntax.

TORONTO, April, 1867.

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GRAMMAR.

1. GRAMMAR is both a SCIENCE and an ART.

2. As a SCIENCE, it investigates the principles of language in general: as an ART, it teaches the right method of applying these principles to a particular language, so as thereby to express our thoughts in a correct and proper manner, according to established usage.

3. ENGLISH GRAMMAR is the art of speaking and writing the English language, according to established usage.

4. Language is either spoken or written.

5. The elements of spoken language, are vocal and articulate sounds.

6. The elements of written language, are characters or letters which represent these sounds.

7. Letters are formed into syllables and words; words into sentences; and by these, properly uttered or written, men communicate their thoughts to each other.

8. GRAMMAR is divided into four parts; namely, *Orthography*, *Etymology*, *Syntax*, and *Prosody*.

9. *Orthography* treats of letters and syllables;* *Etymology*, of words; *Syntax*, of sentences; and *Prosody*, of elocution and versification.

* As the whole subject of Orthography is treated more fully in the spelling-book and dictionary, a brief synopsis of its principles only is here given, rather as a matter of *form*, than with a view to its being particularly studied at this stage. The teacher may therefore, if he thinks proper pass over PART I. for the present.

PART I.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

10. Orthography treats of letters, and of the mode of combining them into syllables and words.

11. A letter is a mark, or character, used to represent an elementary sound of the human voice.

12. There are *Twenty-six* letters in the English Alphabet.

13. Letters are either Vowels or Consonants.

14. A *Vowel* is a letter which represents a simple *inarticulate* sound; and, in a word or syllable, may be sounded alone. The vowels are *a, e, i, o, u;* and *w* and *y* not before a vowel sounded in the same syllable, as in *law, bay.*

15. A *Consonant* is a letter which represents an *articulate* sound; and, in a word or syllable, is never sounded alone, but always in connection with a vowel. The consonants are *b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, x, z;* and *w* and *y* before a vowel sounded in the same syllable, as in *war, youth.*

16. A *Diphthong* is the union of two vowels in one sound. Diphthongs are of two kinds, proper and improper.

17. A *Proper Diphthong* is one in which both the vowels are sounded, as *ou*, in *out; oi*, in *oil; ow*, in *cow.*

18. An *Improper Diphthong*, or digraph, is one in which only one of the vowels is sounded, as *ou* in *court; oa* in *boat.*

19. A *Triphthong* is the union of three vowels in one sound, as *eau* in *beauty.*

THE POWERS OF LETTERS.

20. In analyzing words into their elementary sounds, it is necessary to distinguish between the *name* of a letter and its *power.*

21. The *name* of a letter is that by which it is usually called; as A, bē, sē, dē, &c.

22. The *power* of a letter is the effect which it has, either by itself or combined with other letters, in forming a word or syllable.

23. Each of the vowels has several powers. Several letters have the same power; and certain powers or elements of words are represented by a combination of two letters.

24. The elementary powers or sounds in the English language are about *forty*, and are divided into *Vocals*, represented by vowels and diphthongs; and *Subvocals* and *Aspirates*, represented by consonants, single or combined.

25. VOCALS are *inarticulate* sounds produced by the organs of voice, with the mouth more or less open, and with no change, or but slight change, of position in the organs of speech.

26. SUBVOCALS are sounds produced by the organs of voice, *articulated* or modified by certain changes in the position of the organs of speech.

27. ASPIRATES are mere whispering sounds without vocality, but which, still, have an audible effect in the enunciation of words. They are all articulate except *h*.

28. The elementary powers of letters can not be exhibited to the eye, but must be learned from the living voice.

29. The NAME of a vowel is always one of its powers (except *w* and *y*), and if, from the name of a consonant, we take away the vowel sound, what remains is generally the power of that consonant, except *w* and *y*.

30. A full view of the elementary powers of letters in the formation of words, is exhibited in the following table. In the words annexed as examples, the letter, whose power is indicated, is printed in Italic. By pronouncing the word distinctly, and then leaving out all but the power of the Italic letter, and uttering that alone, we have the power of that letter.

31. TABLE *of Elementary Sounds in the English Language.*

VOCALS.	SUBVOCALS.	ASPIRATES.
A. a*le*, a*ble*.	B. *b*at, or*b*.	F. *f*ix.
A. *a*rt.	D. *d*o, did.	H. *h*at.
A. *a*ll.	G. *g*one, do*g*.	K. *k*eep, boo*k*.
A. *a*t.	J. *j*udge.	P. *p*en, to*p*.
E. m*e*.	L. *l*ie.	S. *s*un.
E. m*e*t, *e*gg.	M. *m*an.	T. *t*op, ba*t*.
I. *i*re.	N. *n*o.	Th. fai*th*.
I. *i*n.	NG. ri*ng*.	Sh. *sh*ow.
O. old.	R.* *r*ope, *r*ar.	Ch. *ch*ide.
O. m*o*ve, *oo*ze.	Th. *th*is.	Wh. *wh*en.
O. *o*dd.	V. *v*an.	
U. t*u*ne, *u*se.	W. *w*e.	
U. *u*p.	Y. *y*es.	
U. f*u*ll.	Z. *z*inc.	
Ou. th*ou*.	Z. a*z*ure.	

* R before a vowel has a hard or thrilling sound; as *r*at, *r*ough; after a vowel, a soft and liquid sound; as, ar*m*, fa*r*.

32. Certain letters in the English alphabet have the same power as others in the preceding table, and may therefore be called *Equivalents*. Equivalents of vowels and diphthongs are numerous.

33. Of the Subvocals and Aspirates, eight pairs are *Correlatives*. In sounding the first of any of these pairs, the organs of voice* and speech are in the same position as in sounding its fellow, but the first, or subvocal, has vocality; the second, or aspirate, has not.

34. TABLE *of Equivalents and Correlatives.*

EQUIVALENTS.			CORRELATIVES.			
			Subvocals.		*Aspirates.*	
W	=u	*cow*, me*w*.	V.	vow.	F.	fame.
Y	=i	*ty*rant, *sy*stem.	G.	gone.	K.	keep.
C hard	=k	*c*at.	B.	bat.	P.	pen.
Q	=k	li*qu*or.	Z.	zinc.	S.	sin.
C soft	=s	*c*ent.	D.	do.	T.	top.
G soft	=j	*g*in.	Th.	this.	Th.	thick.
X	=ks	fi*x*.	Z.	azure.	Sh.	show.
			J.	judge.	Ch.	chide.

35. These elementary sounds of the human voice, sometimes simple, but more commonly combined, are formed into *syllables* and *words*.

SYLLABLES.

36. A *Syllable* is a certain vocal or articulate sound, uttered by one impulse of the voice, and represented by one or more letters, as, *farm*, *farm-er*, *ea-gle*, *a-e-ri-al*.

37. Every word contains as many syllables as it has distinct vocal sounds, as *gram-ma-ri-an*.

38. A word of one syllable is called a *Monosyllable*.

39. A word of two syllables is called a *Dissyllable*.

40. A word of three syllables is called a *Trisyllable*.

41. A word of more than three syllables is called a *Polysyllable*.

* The *Organs of Voice* are those parts (called by physiologists the larynx and its appendages) which are employed in the production of simple vocal sounds.

The *Organs of Speech* are those parts employed to articulate or modify whispering or vocal sounds. These are the tongue, lips, teeth, and palate.

DIVISION OF WORDS INTO SYLLABLES.

42. The division of words into syllables is called *Syllabication.*

GENERAL RULE.

43. Place together in distinct syllables, those letters which make up the separate parts or divisions of a word, as heard in its correct pronunciation.

44. The only definite rules of much value on this subject are the following:—

45. *Rule* 1. Two or more consonants forming but one elementary sound, are never separated; such as, *ch, tch, th, sh, ng, ph, wh, gh,* silent, or sounding *f, lk,* sounding *k,* &c.; as, *church-es, watch-es, wor-thy, fish-es, sing-ing, philoso-phy, sigh-ing, cough-ing, walk-ing.*

46. *Rule* 2. The terminations, *cean, cian, ceous, cious, cial, tion, tious, tial, geon, gian, geous, sion,* are seldom divided; as, *o-cean, gra-cious, na-tion, coura-geous,* &c.

47. *Rule* 3. Compound words are divided into their simple ones; as, *rail-road, bee-hive, hope-less, thank-ful,* &c.

48. *Rule* 4. The terminations of words, when they form a syllable, are usually separated from their roots; as, *writ-er, teach-es, think-ing, cold-er, old-est.*

49. Two separate words combined as one name, are usually separated by a hyphen; as, *rail-road, glass-house, bee-hive.*

50. In writing, every line must conclude with the last letter of a word or syllable.

SPELLING.

51. SPELLING is the art of expressing a word by its proper letters.

52. The Orthography of the English language is so anomalous, and in many cases arbitrary, that proficiency in it can be acquired only by practice, and the use of the spelling-book or dictionary. The following rules are of a general character, though even to these, there may be a few exceptions:—

GENERAL RULES FOR SPELLING WORDS.

RULE I.

53. Monosyllables ending with *f*, *l*, or *s*, preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant; as, *staff*, *mill*, *pass*.

54. *Exceptions.*—Of, if, as, is, has, was, his, gas, yes, this, us, thus, pus.

RULE II.

55. Words ending with any consonant except *f*, *l*, or *s*, do not double the final letter; as, *sit*, *not*, *up*, *put*, *that*, *in*.

56. *Exceptions.*—Add, bunn, butt, buzz, ebb, egg, err, inn, odd, purr.

RULE III.

57. Words ending in *y* preceded by a consonant, change *y* into *i* before an additional letter or syllable; as, *spy*, *spies*; *happy*, *happier*, *happiest*; *carry*, *carrier*, *carried*; *fancy*, *fanciful*.

58. *Exception* 1.—But *y* is not changed before *ing*; as, *deny*, *denying*.

59. *Exception* 2.—Words ending in *y* preceded by a vowel, retain the *y* unchanged; as, *boy*, *boys*, *boyish*, *boyhood*.

Exception 3.—But *lay*, *pay*, *say*, make *laid*, *paid*, *said*; and *day* makes *daily*.

RULE IV.

60. Monosyllables and words accented on the last syllable, ending with a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant before an additional syllable beginning with a vowel; as, *rob*, *robber*; *admit*, *admittance*, *admitted*.

Exception.—But *x* and *h* are never doubled.

61. But when a dipthong or double vowel precedes, or the accent is *not* on the last syllable, the consonant is not doubled; as, *boil*, *boiling*, *boiler*; *wool*, *woollen*; *fool*, *foolish*; *visit*, *visited*.

62. *Exceptions.*—In about fifty words ending in *l* with a vowel before it, and not accented on the last syllabe, many writers, contrary to analogy and without necessity, double the *l* improperly before an additional syllable. These are such words as, *travel*, *traveller*, *travelling*, *travelled*.*

*The words referred to are the following: Apparel, bevel, bowel, cancel, carol, cavil, channel, chisel, counsel, cudgel, dishevel, drivel, duel, embowel, enamel, empanel, equal, gambol, gravel, grovel, handsel, hatchel, imperil, jewel, kennel, label, level, libel, marshal, marvel, model, panel, parcel, pencil, peril, pistol, pommel, quarrel, ravel, revel, rival, rowel, shovel, shrivel, snivel, tassel, trammel, travel, tunnel, unravel.

63. So also *s* and *p* are generally doubled in *bias*, *worship* and *kidnap;* as *biassing, worshipper, kidnapping.* Webster, and many writers following him, in these words conform to the general rule.

RULE V.

64. Words ending with *ll* drop one *l* before the terminations *less* and *ly*, to prevent trebling; as, *skill, skilless; full, fully;* and some writers before *ness* and *full;* as, *fulness, skilful.*

65. But words ending in any other double letter, preserve the letter double before *less, ly, ness,* and *full;* as, *harmlessly, stiffly gruffness,* &c.

RULE VI.

66. Silent *e* is preserved before the terminations *ment, less, ly,* and *ful;* as, *paleness, peaceful, abatement,* &c.

67. *Exceptions.*—Duly, truly, awful, and generally, judgment, acknowledgment, lodgment, abridgment, are excepted. Argument from the Latin *argumentum*, is not an exception.

RULE VII.

68. Silent *e* is omitted before terminations beginning with a vowell; as, *slave, slavish; cure, curable; sense, sensible; lodge, lodging; love, lovest.*

69. *Blame, move, reprove, sale,* and their compounds, sometimes, though improperly, retain *e* before *able;* as, *blameable,* &c.

70. But words ending in *ge* and *ce* retain *e* before *able,* in order to preserve the soft sound of *g* and *c;* as, *changeable, peaceable,* &c. For the same reason we have *singeing,* and *swingeing; dye* has *dyeing,* to distinguish it from *dying.* So also words ending with *c* hard insert *k* before a syllable beginning with *e or i* to preserve the hard sound; as, *frolic, frolicked, frolicking.*

71. The letters *ie* at the end of a word, are changed into *y* before *ing;* as, *die, dying; lie, lying.*

RULE VIII.

72. Simple words, ending in *ll*, when joined to other words generally drop one *l* when they lose the accent; as, *awful, hopeful, handful, careful, already.*

73. But when they are under the accent, the double *l* should be retained; as, *fulfill, willful, recall, forctell.* But, *until, welcome, always, also, withal, therewithal, wherewithal,* have single *l.*

74. In words under this rule, however, usage is far from uniform, *fulfil* and *fulfill; willful* and *wilful; recal* and *recall; foretel* and *foretell;* and similar varieties are common.

75. Other compounded words are generally spelled in the same

manner as the simple words of which they are formed; as *glass-house, mill-wright, thereby.*

76. Many words in English admit of two or more different modes of spelling; as, *connection, connexion; enquire, inquire; chemistry, chymistry,* &c. In such cases, prevailing usage and analogy must be our guides.

CAPITALS.

77. Formerly every noun began with a capital letter, both in writing and in printing; but at present only the following words begin with capital letters:—

1. The first word of every book, chapter, letter, note, or of any other piece of writing.

2. The first word after a period; also after a note of interrogation, or exclamation, when the sentence before, and the one after it, are independent of each other.

But if several interrogatory or exclamatory sentences are so connected, that the latter sentences depend on the former, all of them, except the first, may begin with a small letter; as "How doth the city sit solitary, that was full of people! *how* are her habitations become as desolate! *how* is she become as a widow!

3. Proper names, titles of office or honor, names of months and days; as, *George Washington, General Lee, Judge Story, Sir Walter Scott, America, the Ohio, Pratt, Woodford, & Co., Pearl Street, New York, May.*

4. The prounoun *I*, and the interjection *O*, are written in capitals.

5. The first word of every line in poetry.

6. Names and appellations of the Deity, and pronouns that refer to Him; as, *God, Most High, the Almighty, the Supreme Being;* as, He who created and redeemed mankind.

7. Adjectives derived from the proper names of places; as, *Grecian, Roman, English,* &c.

8. The first word of a direct quotation, when the quotation would form a complete sentence by itself; as, "Always remember this ancient maxim: '*Know* thyself.'"

When a quotation is not introduced in the direct form, but follows a comma, the first word must not begin with a capital; as, "Solomon observes, that '*pride* goes before destruction.'"

9. Common nouns when personified; as, "Come, gentle *Spring.*"

10. Every Substantive and principal word in the titles of books: as, "*Euclid's Elements of Geometry;* "*Goldsmith's Deserted Village*"

78. Other words, besides the preceding, may begin with capitals, when they are remarkably emphatical, or the principal subject of the composition.

PART II.

ETYMOLOGY.

79. ETYMOLOGY treats of the different sorts of words, their various inflections, and their derivation.

WORDS.

80. A WORD is an articulate sound, used by common consent, as the sign of an idea.

81. A few words consist of vocal or vowel sounds only, without articulation; as, *I*, *ah*, *awe*, *oh*, *owe*, *eye*, &c.

82.—1. Words, in respect to their *Formation*, are either *Primitive* or *Derivative*, *Simple* or *Compound*.

83. A *Primitive* word is one that is not derived from any other word in the language; as, *boy*, *just*, *father*.

84. A *Derivative* word is one that is derived from some other word; as, *boyish*, *justice*, *fatherly*.

85. A *Simple* word is one that is not combined with any other word; as, *man*, *house*, *city*.

86. A *Compound* word is one that is made up of two or more simple words; as, *manhood*, *horseman*.

87.—2. Words, in respect to *Inflection*, are either *Declinable* or *Indeclinable*.

88. A *Declinable* word is one which undergoes certain changes of *form* or *termination*, to express the different relations of gender, number, case, degree, voice, mood, tense, person; as, *man*, *men*; *love*, *loves*, *loved*, &c.

89. In the changes which they undergo, Nouns and Pronouns are said to be *declined*, Verbs, to be *conjugated*.

90. An *Indeclinable* word is one which undergoes no change of form; as, *good*, *some*, *perhaps*.

91.—3. In respect to *Signification* and *Use*, words are divided into *eight* different classes, called *Parts of Speech.*

92. The principle according to which words are classified is their *use*, or the part they perform in the expression of thought. Words which are names of objects are classed as *nouns;* those which qualify nouns are *adjectives;* those which attribute an action or state to some subject are *verbs*, &c. Hence, when the same word is used for different purposes—at one time as a *name*, at another to *qualify* a noun, and at another to express an *action* or *state*—it should, in parsing, be assigned to that class of words, the office of which it performs for the time: thus, "Before *honor* [noun] is humility." "*Honor* [verb] thy father and thy mother."

PARTS OF SPEECH.

93. The parts of speech are:—

1. The words used to name persons or things; as, *table, book, kindness.*—NOUNS.

2. The words used to express the *qualities* of persons or things; as, *good* book, *sweet* apples, &c.—ADJECTIVES.

3. The words used *instead* of the *names* of persons or things; as, *he, you, who, they*, &c.—PRONOUNS.

4. The words used to *declare, affirm* or *assert* what persons or things do; as, John *reads.* He *stands*, &c.—VERBS.

5. Words used to express the *manner, time, place*, &c., of an act, or the *degree*, &c., of a quality; as, He acts *justly.* He will go *soon.* He lives *there.* He is a *very* good boy.—ADVERBS.

6. Words used to express the relation which names of persons or things bear to other words, or to one another; as, They live *in* Toronto. He went *to* Montreal.—PREPOSITIONS.

7. Words used merely as connectives, when words and clauses require to be connected together; as, James *and* William left home this morning; *but* they will return *when* they have completed their engagement.—CONJUNCTIONS.

8. Words used merely to expres *emotion*, without any connection with other words; as *Adieu!* my friend! *Hurrah!* for the volunteers of Canada.—INTERJECTIONS.

94. Definitions of the parts of speech.

1. A NOUN is the *name* of anything; as, *Quebec, city, love.*

2. An ADJECTIVE is a word used to *qualify* or *limit* the meaning of a noun; as, an *honest* man; *ten* days; *this* book.

3. A PRONOUN is a word used to *supply* the *place* of a noun; as, when *our* friends had visited Niagara *they* returned to Hamilton.

4. A VERB is a word used to make an *assertion;* or, a word which *affirms* the *act*, *being*, or *state* of its subject; as, I *write*. He *is loved*.

5. AN ADVERB is a word used to modify the sense of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb; as, "She reads *very correctly*." A *remarkably* diligent boy.

6. A PREPOSITION is a word used to express the *grammatical relation* of a noun or pronoun depending upon it, to some other word in the sentence; as, He went *from* Montreal *to* Halifax. We moved *up* the river *in* a small boat.

7. A CONJUNCTION is a word used to connect words, phrases, or sentences; as, He *and* I must go; *but* you may stay. Of him, *and* to him, *and* through him, are all things.

8. AN INTERJECTION is a word used merely to *express emotion*, without any connection with other words; as, "Oh! what a fall was there!" *Alas!* my friend is no more.

METHOD OF INTRODUCING THE SUBJECT.

Instead of following the order of the book, at first, the teacher would find it an excellent plan, when satisfied that the class really understands the definition of each part of speech, to introduce the subject, by calling upon the pupils to point out the *nouns* and *pronouns* in any piece that may be selected; then the *adjectives*, connecting each with the noun to which it belongs; then the *verbs*, connecting each with its subject; then the *adverbs*, noting their modifying effect upon their verbs, adjectives, &c; then the *prepositions*, marking the words related by each, in accordance with the definition; then the conjunctions, noting particularly the words or clauses connected by each. Then, after giving sufficient explanations and illustrations of the *nominative* case, go over the piece again, pointing out the *nominatives;* then, explaining the difference between a *transitive* and *intransitive* verb, return in search of *objectives* to verbs; then, having illustrated the fact that every *preposition* requires to be completed by its *objective* noun or pronoun, the objectives to prepositions should be pointed out; then, having made it understood that each preposition and its object is a mere *completing adjunct* to some other word, let the antecedent term of relationship be pointed out in the case of each preposition; then the possessive cases; then nouns and pronouns which are neither nominative, possessive, nor objective; that is, nouns *independent* by *address*, by *pleonasm*, by *exclamation*, and before a *participle*. Before leaving, the piece which has been gone over in this manner, the class should be exercised on it till they can give, without hesitation, the construction of the words, in the order in which they occur.

Then, having made the class understand what is meant by a *proposition* or sentence, the propositions in the piece should be separated from each other, and counted off. Then, having got the class to understand, by the use of simple and familiar illustrations, the distinction between a *principal* and *subordinate* proposition, proceed to classify the propositions in the piece accordingly.

When, by *oral instruction* alone, the class has been made familiar with every thing of this kind contained in the piece, a new piece should be selected, but not before. The class should receive sufficient oral instruction to enable them to understand and do every thing required within this limit before taking up the subject in the regular order in which it is presented in the text-book. This much would constitute a complete initiatory course on the *classification* and *relation* of *words* and *clauses;* and this is really the *only* introduction which beginners require to master, before entering on the regular study of the "Analytical and Practical Grammar;" and this they require before entering *with advantage* on the study of *any text-book*, however *elementary*.

The selections for these initiatory exercises should, at first, be as simple in construction as possible, becoming gradually more complex and difficult as the class advances.

SELECTIONS FOR INTRODUCTORY COURSE OF EXERCISES, IN ACCORDANCE WITH THE ABOVE SUGGESTIONS.

Sentences in Exercises 2nd, 6th, 7th, 8th, 14th, 15th, 16th, 17th, 19th.

NOUNS.

95. A NOUN is the *name* of anything; as, *tree*, *Toronto*, *kindness*.

96. Nouns may be divided into three classes, *Proper*, *Common* and *Abstract*.

97. A *Proper Noun* is the name applied to an individual only; as, *John*, *London*, *America*, the *Ohio*.

98. When a proper noun is used to denote a whole class, it becomes common, and generally has an article before it; as, "The twelve *Cæsars*," "He is the *Cicero* of his age," "A *Daniel* come to judgment." *A Campbell*, i.e., one of the Campbells.

99. Common nouns become proper when personified and also when used as proper names; as, Hail, *Liberty!* The *Park*.

100. A *Common Noun* is a name applied

in common to everything of the same kind; as, *man, chair, table, book.*

Common Nouns may be subdivided into,—

1. *Class Names.*—Names applicable to any one of a class; as, *book.*

2. *Collective nouns*—the name of a number of individuals *united* together; as *people.*

3. *Material nouns*—names of substances not made up of individual parts; as, *honey, butter.*

4. *Names* of *numbers, weights, measures,* &c.; as, an *ounce,* a *peck.*

101. An *Abstract Noun* is the name of anything which we only conceive of as having a real existence; as *goodness, rest singing, to sing.*

Abstract nouns may be divided into,—

1. *Names* of *qualities*; as, *simplicity, size, courage.*

3. *Names* of *actions,* including verbal nouns; as, *flight, walking, to walk.*

3. *Names of states* or *conditions*; as, *poverty, sickness.*

1st EXERCISE.*

1. In the following list, distinguish between proper, common, and abstract nouns; and give a reason for the distinction :—

Albany, city, tree, nation, France, Philip, dog, horse, house, garden, Dublin, Edinburgh, London, river, Hudson, Ohio, Thames, countries, America, England, Ireland, Spain, sun, moon, stars, planets, Jupiter, Venus, Mars, man, woman, boy, girl, John, James, Mary, Susan, mountain, stream, valley.

2. In the following sentences, point out the nouns. Say why they are nouns; tell whether they are proper, common, or abstract, and why; and to which class of the common, proper, or

* The exercise furnished here, and thorughout this work, are intended merely as a specimen of the way in which the leading truths and facts in Grammar may be wrought into the minds of pupils, by means of exercises properly devised. It is not, however, expected or desired that the teacher should limit himself to these. Every active and ingenious teacher will devise such new and various methods of exercising his pupils as their age, capacity, and circumstances, and his own judgment and experience may suggest, as best calculated to *draw out* their powers, and cultivate in them a habit of thinking and reasoning for themselves.

abstract they belong, and why. Thus, "*Army*," a noun, because the name of a thing; common, because applied to all things of the same kind; and collective, because it is a name of a number united together.

The table and chairs in this room belong to John; the book case, writing-desk, and books, to his brother. They landed at Quebec on Monday. The peace of the country is disturbed. They are the people of his choice. His forbearance was remarkable. The iron of Marmora is excellent. I bought a dozen pencils for a shilling. It is pleasant to travel by moonlight. His decision was commendable. Contentment is the best fortune. Coral is produced by marine animals. I am impatient to depart. The coachman has harnessed the horses. Ottawa is the capital of Canada. Canada is one of the brightest gems in the British crown. The roofs of houses are sometimes covered with slate. There is a great deal of wood in Canada, but no coal. He has been chairman of the board for ten years.

3. Go over this exercise again, and point out the *verb* and *subject* in each sentence, and give the *construction* of the words that modify the subject, then the words that modify the verb.

Obs.—This direction is given assuming that the subject has been introduced in the manner recommended.

INFLECTIONS OF THE NOUN.

Nouns and Pronouns are inflected, that is, changed in form by the addition of terminations to express *Gender*, *Person*, *Number* and *Case*.

GENDER.

103. Gender is the distinction of nouns with regard to sex.

104. There are three genders, *Masculine*, *Feminine*, and *Neuter*.

105. Nouns denoting males are *Masculine* as, *man*, *boy*.

106. Nouns denoting females are *Feminine;* as, *woman, girl.*

107. Nouns denoting neither males nor females, i. e., things without sex, are *Neuter;* as, *house, book, tree.*

108. Nouns which denote either males or females, such as *parent, neighbour, friend,* &c., are sometimes, for the sake of convenience, said to be of the *Common gender,* i. e., either masculine or feminine.

109. When the *feminine* is not distinguished from the *masculine* by using a different word; as *boy, girl,*—it is distinguished by the termination "*ess*"; as, *lion, lioness;*—and sometimes by "*ine*"; as, *hero, heroine.*

110. Nouns which have different words for the *Masculine* and *Feminine* are,

Masculine.	*Feminine.*	*Masculine.*	*Feminine.*
Bachelor	maid	Husband	wife
Boar	sow	King	queen
Beau	belle	Lord (a title)	lady
Boy	girl	Lad	lass
Brother	sister	Man	woman
Bridegroom	bride	Master	mistress or miss
Buck	doe	Monk	nun
Bull	cow	Nephew	niece
Cock	hen	Papa	mamma
Drake	duck	Ram, buck	ewe
Dog	bitch	Son	daughter
Earl	countess	Sir	madam
Father	mother	Stag	hind
Friar	nun	Sloven	slut
Gander	goose	Swain	nymph
Gentleman	lady	Uncle	aunt
Hart	roe	Wizard	witch
Horse	mare		

111. Nouns which form the *feminine* by the termination "*ess.*"

Masculine.	*Feminine.*	*Masculine.*	*Feminine.*
Abbott	abbess	Lion	lioness
Actor	actress	Marquis	marchioness
Adulterer	adulteress	Mayor	mayoress
Ambassador	ambassadress	Negro	negress
Arbiter	arbitress	Peer	peeress
Author	authoress	Poet	poetess
Baron	baroness	Priest	priestess
Benefactor	benefactress	Prince	princess
Count	countess	Prior	prioress
Conductor	conductress	Prophet	prophetess
Deacon	deaconess	Protector	protectress
Duke	duchess	Shepherd	shepherdess
Elector	electoress	Songster	songstress
Emperor	empress	Sorcerer	sorceress
Enchanter	enchantress	Sultan	sultaness or sultana
Giant	giantess		
Governor	governess	Tiger	tigress
Heir	heiress	Traitor	traitress
Hunter	huntress	Tutor	tutoress
Host	hostess	Viscount	viscountess
Jew	jewess	Votary	votaress
Patron	patroness		

112. The nouns which form the Feminine by the termination "*ine*" are *hero—heroine; Landgrave—landgravine.*

113. The Masculine and Femine are sometimes distinguished by using a masculine or feminine word before the noun; as, a *cock* sparrow—a *hen* sparrow; a *he* goat—a *she* goat; *male* descendants—*female* descendants, &c.

114. Words originally Latin, ending in "*or*" take the Latin form of the feminine in "*ix*"; as, testator—testatrix; executor—executrix. Widower has *widow* for the feminine; Czar has *Czarina.*

OBSERVATIONS ON GENDER.

115. Many masculine nouns have no corresponding feminine;

as, *baker*, *brewer*, *dandy*, &c: and some feminine nouns have no corresponding masculine: as, *laundress*, *seamstress*, &c.

116. Some nouns naturally neuter, are often, by a figure of speech, converted into the masculine or feminine; as, when we say of the sun, "*He* is setting;" of the moon, "*She* is eclipsed;" or of a ship, "*She* sails."

117. Remarks.—This inferior species of personification, peculiar to the English language, is often used with great beauty to impart animation and liveliness to the style, without rendering it inflated or passionate. No certain rule, however, can be given as to the gender assumed, except that nouns denoting objects distinguished for strength or boldness, are usually regarded as masculine, while on the other hand, these denoting objects noted for softness, beauty and gracefulness, are considered feminine.

118. In speaking of animals whose sex is not known to us, or not regarded, we assign the masculine gender to those distinguished for boldness, fidelity, generosity, size, strength, &c., as the dog the horse, the elephant. Thus we say, "The dog is remarkably various in *his* species." On the other hand, we assign the feminine gender to animals characterized to weakness and timidity; as the hare, the cat, &c., thus, "The cat, as *she* beholds the light, draws the ball of *her* eye small and long."

119. In speaking of animals, particularly those of inferior size, we frequently consider them without sex, or of the neuter gender. Thus, of an infant, we say, "*It* is a lovely creature;" of a cat, "*It* is cruel to *its* enemy."

120. The masculine term has, sometimes, also a general meaning, expressing both male and female, and is always to be used when the office, occupation, profession, &c., and not the sex of the individual, is chiefly to be expressed. The feminine term is used only when the discrimination of sex is necessary. Thus, when it is said "the Poets of this country are distinguished for correctness of taste," the term "Poets" clearly includes both *male* and *female* writers of poetry. But, "the best Poetess of the age," would be said when speaking only of females.

121. Collective nouns, when the reference is to the aggregate as one whole, or when they are in the plural number, are considered as neuter; as, "The *army* destroyed everything in *its* course." but when the reference is to the objects composing the collection as individuals, they take the gender of the individuals referred to.

2nd EXERCISE.

1. *What is the feminine of*—Father, prince, king, master, actor, emperor, bridegroom, stag, buck, hart,

nephew, friar, priest, heir, hero, Jew, host, hunter, sultan, executor, horse, lord, husband, brother, son, bull, he-goat, &c.

2. *What is the masculine of*—Lady, woman, girl, niece, nun, aunt, belle, duchess, abbess, empress, heroine, wife, sister, mother, hind, roe, mare, hen-sparrow, shepherdess, daughter, ewe, goose, queen, songstress, widow, &c.

3. *Tell of what gender the following nouns are, and why.*

Man, horse, tree, field, father, house, mother, queen, count, lady, king, prince, castle, tower, river, stone, hen, goose, seamstress, mountain, cloud, air, sky, hand, foot, head, body, limb, lion, tiger, mayor, countess;—friend, neighbor, parent, teacher, assistant, guide;—sun moon, earth, ship;—cat, mouse, fly, bird, elephant, hare.

4. Take any of the above words, and say something respecting the person or thing which it denotes, so as to make a sentence; thus, "My *father* is at home."

PERSON.

112. PERSON, in Grammar, is the distinction between the speaker, the person or thing spoken to, and the person or thing spoken of.

A noun is in the *first* person, when it denotes the speaker; as "*I*, Paul, have written it."

A noun is in the *second* person, when it denotes the person or thing spoken to; as, "Thou, *God*, seest me."—"Hail, *Liberty*!"

A noun is in the *third* person, when it denotes the person or thing spoken of; as, "*Truth* is mighty."

123. REMARK.—The third person is used sometimes for the *first;* as, "thy *servant* became surety for the lad to my father."—Gen. xliv. 32 Sometimes, particularly in the language of supplication, it is used for the *second;* as,, "O let not the Lord be angry." Gen. xviii. 30. "Will the Lord bless us!"

OBSERVATIONS ON PERSON.

124. The first and the second person can belong only to nouns denoting persons, or things personified; because persons only can

speak or be spoken to. The *third* person may belong to all nouns, because every object, whether person or thing, may be spoken of.

125. A noun can be the subject of a verb only in the third person. A noun in the *first* or *second* person is never used as the subject of a verb, but only in apposition with the first or second personal pronoun, for the sake of explanation or emphasis; and sometimes in the second person, without a pronoun, as the object addressed.

126. A noun in the predicate is generally, though not always, in the *third* person, even when the subject is in the first or second; as, "I am *Alpha*," &c., "who *is*." So with the pronouns *I* and *thou;* as, "I am *he*." "Thou art the *man*."

NUMBER.

127. NUMBER is the distinction of *one* from *more than one.*

128. Nouns have two numbers, the *Singular* and the *Plural.* The singular denotes but one object: as, *book, tree;* the plural, more than one; as, *books, trees.*

129. The plural is commonly formed by adding *s* to the singular; as, *book, books.*

1st. Words ending in a sound that will not unite with the sound of *s*, form their plural by adding *es.*

130. Nouns in *s, sh, x,* and *ch* soft; that is, ending in a sound that will not unite with the sound of *s*, form their plural in *es;* as, *fox, foxes; match, matches.*

131. 2nd.—Most nouns ending in *o*, preceded by a consonant form their plural in *es;* as, *cargo, cargoes.*

EXCEPTIONS.—*Canto, momento, octavo, two, zero;* with respect to grotto, junto, portico, quarto, solo, tyro, halo, and a few others, *usage is not uniform.*

132. 3rd.—Nouns in *y* after a consonant, form their plural in *es;* as, (changing *y* into *i*, according to Rule III., for spelling) *lady, ladies.*

Nouns in *y* after a vowel, and all proper nouns in *y*, follow the general rule; as, *day, days;* the *Pompeys*, the *Tullys*, &c.

133. 4th.—Nouns in *f* or *fe*, form the plural in *es*, changing *f* into *v*; as, *loaf*, *loaves*; *life*, *lives*.

Exceptions.—Dwarf, scarf, reef; brief, chief, grief, kerchief, handkerchief, mischief; gulf, turf, surf; safe, fife, strife; proof, hoof, reproof,—also nouns in *ff*; as, *muff*, *muffs*; except *staff*, plural *staves*; but its compounds are regular; as, *flagstaff*, *flagstaffs*; *wharf* has either *wharfs* or *wharves*.

3RD EXERCISE.

1. Give the plural of the following nouns, and the rules for forming each; thus, *Fox*, plural *foxes*. RULE.—Nouns in *s*, *sh*, *x*, *ch*, soft, form the plural by adding *es*. Or, more briefly; Nouns in *x* form the plural by adding *es*.

Fox, book, leaf, candle, hat, loaf, wish, fish, sex, box, coach, inch, sky, bounty, army, duty, knife, echo, loss, cargoe, wife, story, church, table, glass, study, calf, branch, street, potato, peach, sheaf, booby, rock, stone, house, glory, hope, flower, city, difficulty, distress, wolf.

Day, bay, relay, chimney, journey, valley, needle, enemy, army, vale, ant, hill, sea, key, toy, monarch, tyro, grotto, nuncio, punctilio, embyro, gulf, handkerchief, hoof, staff, muff, cliff, whiff, cuff, ruff, reef, safe, wharf, fief.

2. *Of what number is each of the following nouns; viz*:—

Book, trees, plant, shrub, globes, planets, toys, home, fancy, mosses, glass, state, foxes, houses, prints, spoon, bears, lilies, roses, churches, glove, silk, skies, hill, river, scenes, stars, berries, peach, porch, glass, pitcher, alleys, mountain, cameos ?

NOUNS IRREGULAR IN THE PLURAL.

134. Some nouns are irregular in the formation of their plural; such as—

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular*	*Plural.*
Man	men.	Tooth	teeth
Woman	women	Goose	geese
Child	children	Mouse	mice
Foot	feet	Louse	lice
Ox	oxen	Cow formerly but now regular	kine cows

135. Some nouns have both a regular and an irregular form of the plural, but with different significations; as—

Singular		*Plural.*
Brother	(one of the same family)	brothers
Brother	(one of the same society)	brethren
Die	(a stamp for coining)	dies
Die	(a small cube for gaming)	dice
Genius	(a man of genius)	geniuses
Genius	(a kind of spirit)	genii
Index	(a table of reference)	indexes
Index	(a sign in algebra)	indices
Pea	(as a distinct seed)	peas
Pea	(as a species of grain)	pease
Sow	(an individual animal)	sows
Sow or swine	(the species)	swine
Penny	(a coin ———)	pennies
Penny	(a sum or value)	pence

136. NOTE.—Though *pence* is plural, yet such expressions as *fourpence*, *sixpence*, &c., as the name of a sum, or of a coin representing that sum, is often regarded as singular, and so capable of being pluralized; as, "Three fourpences, or two sixpences, make a shilling." "A new sixpence is heavier than an old one."

137.—Compounds ending in *ful* or *full*, are generally those which have the important word last, form the plural regularly; as, *spoonful, cupful, coachful, handful, mouse-trap, ox-cart, court-yard, camera-obscura*, &c.; plural, *spoonfuls, cupfuls, coachfuls*, &c.

138. Compounds in which the principal word stands first, pluralize the first word; as—

Singular.	*Plural.*
Commander-in-chief	commanders-in-chief
Aide-de-camp	aides-de-camp
Knight-errant	knights-errant
Court-martial	courts-martial
Cousin-german	cousins-german
Father-in-law, &c.	fathers-in law, &c.

Man-servant changes both; as, *men-servants*. So also, *woman-servants, knights-templars*.

139. The compounds of *man* form the plural as the simple word; as, *fisherman*, *fishermen*. But nouns accidentally ending in *man*, and not compounds of *man*, form the plural by the general rule; as, *Turcoman*, *Mussulman*, *talisman;* plural, *Turcomans*, *Mussulmans*, &c.

140. Proper names, when pluralized, and other parts of speech used as nouns, or mere names, form the plural like nouns of similar endings; as, the *Aristotles*, the *Solons*, the *Mariuses*, the *Pompeys*, the *Ciceros;* the *ayes* and *noes*, the *ins* and the *outs;* by *sixes* and *sevens*, by *fifties;* three *fourths*, two *halves;* "His *ands* and his *ors;*" "One of the *buts* is superfluous."

Exception.—Such words ending in *y* after a consonant, follow the general rule, and not the special rule; as, the *Livys*, and *Tullys*, the *Henrys*—"The *whys* and the *bys*."

141. Letters, marks, and numericial figures, are made plural by adding *'s;* as, "Dot yours *i's* and cross your *t's*."—"Your *s's* are not well made."—"The +'*s* and —'*s* are not in line."—"Four 6'*s* = eight 3'*s*."—"9's give place to 0's."

142. Note.—Some good writers form the plural of proper names &c., in this way; as, the *Marius's*, the *Pompey's*,—the *whys* and the *wherefores*. But this is unnecessary, and should be avoided.

143. Words adopted without change from foreign languages, generally retain their original plural. As a general rule, nouns in *um* or *on*, have *a* in the plural. Latin nouns in *is*, in the plural change *is* into *es;* Greek nouns in *is*, change *is* into *ides;* Latin nouns in *a* change *a* into *æ;* but Greek nouns change *a* into *ata* in the plural. Latin nouns in *us* change *us* into *i*. The following are the most common, some of which, however, from common use, have become so much a part of the English language as to take also the *English* form of the plural. In the following table, these are indicated by the letter R.

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Alumnus	aulumni	Genus	genera
Alumna	alumnæ	Gymnasium	gymnasia
Amanuensis	amanuenses	Hypothesis	hypotheses
Analysis	analyses	Ignis fatuus	ignes fatui
Animalculum	animalcula, R.	Index (*a pointer*)	indexes
Antithesis	antitheses	Index (*in algebra*)	indices
Apex	apices, R.	Lamina	laminæ
Appendix	appendices, R.	Larva	larvæ
Arcanum	arcana	Magus	magi
Automaton	automata, R.	Medium	media, R.
Axis	axes	Memorandum	memoranda, R
Bandit	banditti	Metamorphosis	metamorphoses
Basis	bases	Miasma	miasmata
Beau	beaux, R.	Momentum	momenta, R.
Calx	calces, R.	Monsieur	messieurs
Cherub	cherubim, R.	Mr. (*master*)	messrs. (*masters*)
Chrysalis	chrysalides	Nebula	nebulæ
Crisis	crises	Oasis	oases
Criterion	criteria	Parenthesis	parentheses
Datum	data	Phenomenon	phenomena
Desideratum	desiderata	Radius	radii
Diæresis	diæreses	Scholium	scholia, R.
Effluvium	effluvia	Seraph	seraphim, R.
Ellipsis	ellipses	Speculum	specula
Emphasis	emphases	Stamen	stamina, R.
Enconium	encomia, R.	Stimulus	stimuli
Ephemeris	ephemerides	Stratum	strata
Erratum	errata	Thesis	theses
Focus	foci	Vertebra	vertebræ
Formula	formulæ	Vertex	vertices, R.
Fungus	fungi, funguses	Virtuoso	virtuosi
Genius	genii (176)	Vortex	vortices, R.

4TH EXERCISE,

ON NOUNS IRREGULAR IN THE PLURAL.

Give the Plural of—Man, foot, penny, mouse, ox, child, woman, brother, goose, tooth;—sow, die, court-martial, father-in-law, son-in-law;—cupful, coachful, spoonful; erratum, medium, radius, genius, lamina, automaton, phenomenon, stratum, axis, ellipsis, stamen, index, cherub, seraph, &c.

Of what number is—Dice, arcana, fishermen, geese,

dormice, alms, riches, thanks, snuffers, tongs, teeth, woman, child, courtmartial, apparatus, miasma, genii, geniuses, indices, indexes, mathematics, Matthew, James, John?

OBSERVATIONS ON NUMBER.

144. Some nouns are used *in the singular only.* Such are the names of *metals, virtues, vices, arts, sciences, abstract qualities,* and things *weighed* or *measured;* as, *gold, meekness, piety, idleness, intemperance, sculpture, geometry, wisdom, flour, milk,* &c. Except when different sorts of things are expressed; as, *wines, teas, sugars, liquors,* &c.

145. Some nouns are used *in the plural only;* as, *annals, antipodes, archives, assets, ashes, billiards, bitters, breeches, clothes, calends, colors* (military banners), *dregs, goods, hysterics, ides, intestines, literati, lees, letters* (literature), *minutiæ, manners, morals, nones, orgies, pleiads,* or *pleiades, shambles, tidings, thanks, vespers, vitals, victuals;* Also, things consisting of two parts; as, *bellows, drawers, hose, nippers, pincers, pliers, snuffers, scissors, shears, tongs,* &c.

146. A few words usually plural, viz., *bowels, embers, entrails, lungs,* have sometimes a singular, denoting a part or portion of that expressed by the plural; as, *bowel, lung,* &c.

147. Some nouns are alike in both numbers; as, *deer, sheep, swine, vermin; grouse, salmon, tench, trout; apparatus, hiatus, series, congeries, species, superficies; head* (in the sense of individual), *cattle;* certain building materials; as, *brick, stone, plank, joist,* in mass; also *fish,* and sometimes *fowl,* denoting the class. But several of these, in a plural sense, denoting individuals have the regular plural also; as, *salmons, trouts, fishes, fowls,* &c.

148. The words *brace, couple, pair, yoke, dozen, score, gross, hundred, thousand,* and some others, after adjectives of number, are either singular or plural; as, *a brace, a dozen, a hundred;* two *brace,* three *dozen,* six *hundred,* &c. But without an adjective of number, or in other constructions, and particularly after *in, by,* &c., in a distributive sense, most of these words, in the plural, assume a plural form; as, "In *braces* and *dozens.*" "By *scores* and *hundreds.*" "Worth *thousands.*"

149. 1.—The following words, plural in form, are sometimes

singular, but most commonly plural in signification, viz.: *amends, means, riches, pains,* (meaning laborious effort), *odds, alms, wages;* and the names of certain sciences; as, *mathematics, ethics, optics acoustics, metaphysics, politics, pneumatics, hydrostatics,* &c.

150. *Means* and *amends*, referring to one object, are singular; to more than one, plural. *Mean* in the singular form, is now used to signify the middle between two extremes. *Alms* (*ælmesse*, Anglo-Saxon) and *riches* (*richesse*, French), are really singular, though now used commonly in a plural sense. *News*, formerly singular or plural, is now mostly singular. *Molasses* and *measles*, though ending like a plural, are singular, and so used. *Oats* is generally plural; *gallows* is both singular and plural, though a distinct plural form, *gallowses*, is also in use.

151. The following are singular in form, but in construction various; thus, *foot* and *horse*, meaning bodies of troops, and *people*, meaning *persons*, are always construed as plural; *cannon, shot, sail, cavalry, infantry*, as singular or plural. *People* (also *folk*), when it signifies a community or body of persons, is a collective noun in the singular, and sometimes, though rarely, takes a plural form; as, "Many people and nations."

THE PLURAL OF PROPER NAMES.

152. Proper names for the most part want the plural; but—

153. Proper names without a title are used in the plural, when they refer to a race or family; as, "The *Campbells*," "the *Stuarts;*" or to several persons of the same name; as, "The twelve *Cæsars;*" or when they are used to denote character; as, "The *Ciceros* of the age."

154. Proper names with the title of *Mrs.* prefixed, or with any title preceded by the numerals *two, three,* &c., pluralize the *name*, and not the title; as, "The Mrs. *Howards;*" "the two Miss *Mortons;* "the two Mr. *Henrys*."

155. But when several persons of the same name are spoken of individually, and distinguished by a particular appellation, or when persons of different names are spoken of together, the *title* only, and not the name is made plural; as, "*Misses* Julia and Mary Robinson;" "Messrs. George and Andrew Thomson;" "Messrs. Pratt, Woodford, & Co."

Thus far, usage and the rule are settled and uniform; but—

156. In other cases, usage is still unsettled. Some writers, perhaps the majority, pluralize the *title* and not the name; as, "The *Misses* Brown;" "the *Messrs.* Harper." Others, of equal authority, regarding the title as a sort of adjective, or the whole as a compound name, pluralize the *name* and not the title; as, "The Miss *Browns;*" "the Mr. *Harpers.*" This form is more common in conversation, and, being less stiff and formal, is more likely to prevail. A few, improperly, pluralize both name and title; as, "The *Misses Browns;*" "the *Messrs. Harpers.*"

157. Names with other titles prefixed, follow the same analogy; as, "Lords Wellington and Lynedoch;" "the lords bishops of Durham and St. David's;" "the generals Scott and Taylor."

5TH EXERCISE.

PROPER NAMES PLURALIZED.

Give examples of nouns used in the singular only. Of nouns used in the plural only. Of words usually plural that are sometimes used in the singular to denote a part or portion of that expressed by the plural. Give examples of nouns that are alike in both numbers. What is peculiar in the manner in which the words *brace, couple, pair, yoke, dozen, score, gross,* &c., are used? Repeat the words plural in form, which though commonly plural are sometimes singular in signification. What is said about the words *means* and *amends;* news, molasses, and measles; oats; gallons? What is said of the words *foot, horse,* (meaning troops) and *people?* Of the words *cannon, shot, sail, cavalry* and *infantry?* When are proper nouns used in the plural? Under what circumstances do proper nouns pluralize the name and not the title? Give examples. Under what circumstances do proper nouns pluralize the title and not the name? Give examples, correct and incorrect. When any other title than Mrs. is prefixed to a name common to two or more persons spoken of together, without using numerals, how is the plural formed? Give examples, correct and incorrect. Give examples of correct and incorrect methods under this rule.

CASE.

158. CASE is the relation which nouns and pronouns bear to the other words with which they are connected in sense.

159. Nouns in English have four cases,

the *Nominative, Possessive, Objective,* and *Independent.**

160. The *Nominative* case is the noun or pronoun when used as the subject of the verb; that is—the noun or pronoun about which the assertion is made; as "*Life* is short." The same verb may have several nominatives; as, "*James* and *William* and *Mary* left home this morning."

161. When the noun coming after the verb *to be*, to become, &c., stands for the same thing as the subject, it is also in the nominative; as, "James is a good *boy*." "Mr. Miller was elected *chairman*."

162. The *Possessive* case is the noun or pronoun, when used to denote the possessor of something; as, John's *book*, my *slate*."

163. The *Objective* case is the noun or pronoun when used as the object of a transitive verb, or of a preposition; as, "James studies *Greek*." "The Queen of *England*." "He is in the *City*." The same verb or preposition may be followed by several objectives; as, "He sent Henry and James and William." "He sent to Henry and James and William."

164. The *Independent* case is the noun when used absolutely: having no dependence on any other word; as, "Your *fathers*, where are they?" "The *cars* being late, we did not overtake him." "There is no terror, *Cassius*, in your threats." "O, the *miseries* of war." "Miller's Grammar."

GENERAL RULES.

165. The mominative and the objective of nouns are alike in form.

166. The possessive singular is formed by adding an apostrophe and *s* to the nominative; as, *John's*.

* The nominative case is defined by the best grammarians, to be, "A noun used as the subject of a verb," and since a noun used independently; as, *John*, come here.—The *day* being cold we did not start.—The *prophets*, where are they, &c., cannot at the same time be the subject of a verb, it is certainly incorrect to class it with the nominative. Is there not as much difference between the *Nominative* and *Independent*, as there is between the *Nominative* and *Objective*? Nouns have *four cases*,—Kennion Bucke, P. Smith, Felton, Fowle, Flint, Goodenow, Hagen, Goldsbury, Chapin, S. Alexander, Clark, Pinnes, &c., &c.

167. When the plural ends in *s*, the possessive is formed by adding an apostrophe only; as, *ladies.'* But when the plural does not end in *s*, both the apostrophe and *s* are added; as, *men's*, *children's*.

DECLENSION OF NOUNS.

168. Nouns are thus declined—

	Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*	*Singular.*
Nom.	Lady	ladies	Man	men	John
Poss.	Lady's	ladies'	Man's	men's	John's
Obj.	Lady	ladies	Man	men	John

169. Proper names for the most part want the plural.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE POSSESSIVE.

170. The *'s* in the possessive case is evidently an abbreviation of the old English termination of the genitive in *es* or *is*. Thus, "The king's crown" was written, "The Kingis crown." That *s* is not an abbreviation for *his*, as some have supposed, is manifest from the fact, that it is used where *his* could not be properly employed; thus, *woman's*, *men's*, *children's*, *book's*, &c., can not be resolved into *woman his*, *men his*, *children his*, &c.

The apostrophe (') after *s* in the plural, is not a mark of abbreviation, but is used, in modern times, merely as a sign of the possessive. Its use in the plural is but of recent date.

171. When the nominative singular ends in *ss*, or in letters of a similar sound, though to retain the *s* after the apostrophe is never wrong, yet, as a matter of taste, it is sometimes omitted in order to avoid harshness, or too close a succession of hissing sounds; as "For goodness' sake;" "for conscience' sake;" so also, "Moses' disciples;" "Jesus' feet."

172. NOTE.—There is considerable diversity of opinion and usage on this point. Some few insist on retaining *s* after the apostrophe in every position; as, "Xanthus's stock of patience."—*L'Estrange.* Others drop the *s* only before a word beginning with an *s* or *s* sound as above; while others drop the *s* wherever the use of it would produce harshness, or difficulty of pronunciation. Though in this last, the usage which omits the *s* is less prevalent and less accurate than that which retains it, yet, from the sanction it has obtained —from the stiffness and harshness which retaining the *s* often occasions—and from the tendency in all spoken languages to abbreviation and euphony, it seems destined to prevail against all other arguments to the contrary.

173. Remark.—In written language, the omission of the *s* occasions but little inconvenience; for the apostrophe sufficiently indicates the case, and the construction will generally indicate the number. But in spoken language, for instance, "Davy's Surveying," and "Davies' Surveying," sound precisely alike, though the names are different. Hence, to indicate the last name correctly in speaking, it will be more accurate, though less euphonic, to say, "Davies's Surveying." Thus, also, "Perkins' Arithmetic," "Sparks' Analysis," in spoken language, may be mistaken for "Perkin's Arithmetic," "Spark's Analysis." In such cases, precision will be secured at the expense of euphony, by retaining the *s*, while euphony will be attained, frequently at the expense of precision, by dropping it.

174. The meaning of the possessive may, in general, be expressed by the word *of* with the objective; thus, for "*man's* wisdom," "*virtue's* reward," we may say, "the wisdom *of man*," "the reward *of virtue*." This mode will generally be preferred, when the use of the possessive would appear stiff or awkward; thus, "the length of the day," is better than "the day's length." In some few words which want the possessive plural, such as *father-in-law*, *court-martial*, &c., this is the only substitute. These two modes of expression, however, are not always equivalent; thus, "the *king's* picture," means any picture belonging to the king; "a picture of the king," means a portrait of him, without saying to whom it belongs. So, also, *of* with the objective, can not always be represented by the possessive; as, "a piece *of gold*," "a cord *of wood*," "the house *of representatives*," &c.

RULES FOR THE SYNTAX OF THE NOUN.

NOMINATIVE.

I. The subject of a finite verb is put in the nominative; as, "*James* is taller than *you* (are)."

II. A noun or pronoun introduced merely to identify or explain another noun or pronoun, is put by apposition in the same case; as, "Milton, the *poet*, was blind."

III. Intransitive verbs, and verbs in the passive voice, take the *same case* after them

as before them, when both words refer to the same person or thing; as, "These people are *they* who were driven from their homes."

[NOTE.—These rules for the cases of nouns, apply also to pronouns.]

POSSESSIVE.

IV. A noun or pronoun used to limit another noun or pronoun, by denoting possession, is put in the possessive case; as, "I lost *my brother's* book."

OBJECTIVE.

V. A transitive verb, in the active voice, governs the objective case; as, "They *invited* your *brother* and *me*."

VI. Prepositions govern the objective case.

INDEPENDENT.

VII. A noun or pronoun used absolutely (that is, having no dependence on any other word), is put in the *Independent* case; as, "The *day* being stormy, I remained at home." "The *prophets!* where are they?" "*Plato*, thou reasonest well!" "Oh, the *miseries* of war!"

THE INFINITIVE.

RULE VIII.—The infinitive mood is a verbal noun; and, when not the subject of a verb, or governed, as any other noun, by

a verb, noun, or preposition, is governed by the sign to; as,

"I desire to learn."—"A desire to learn."—"Anxious to learn."—"To do good and to communicate, forget not."—"To perform is better than to promise."—"Fools who came to scoff, remained to pray."—"Let us go."—"You need not go."—"I am in haste to depart."

ORDER OF PARSING THE NOUNS.

Prop. / Com. / Abstr.	Noun.	Sing. / Plur.	Number.	Nom. / Poss. / Objec. / Indep.	Case according to RULE.

EXAMPLE.—"Romulus founded the City of Rome."

Romulus is a noun, proper, third singular, nominative to the verb *founded.* Rule I. (Repeat it.)

City.—Noun, common, third, singular, objective to *founded.* Rule V. (Repeat it.)

Rome.—Noun, proper, third singular, objective to preposition *of.* Rule VI. (Repeat it.)

5TH EXERCISE.

NOUN.

Give sentences with nouns in the nominative, possessive, objective to verbs, objective to prepositions, and independent case. Give sentences each containing nouns or pronouns in every case. Point out the nouns in the following sentences, and give the case of each, with the reason. Go over them a second time, and parse each according to the form and example given above.

Romulus founded the City of Rome. It was I who wrote the letter, and he who carried it to the post-office. The king's heart is in the hand of the Lord. The prophets! do they live for ever? They represented him to be a good man. A wise man's anger is of short duration. Genius lies buried on our mountains, and in our valleys. Ye are they who justify yourselves. Columns, arches, pyramids; what are they but heaps of sand? Bless the Lord, O, my soul! Honour thy father and thy mother. O, the depth of the riches

of the wisdom of God! I have always preferred cheerfulness to mirth. Jesus I know, and Paul I know, but who art thou? The sun having risen, we departed on our journey. Boys love to play. Ease, fortune, life, all were squandered! Them that honour me I will honour. He left the country ten years ago. We love him. The world's prosperity often brings pain.

Go over this exercise again, and point out the *Subject* and *Verb* in each sentence, and give the *construction of each word.*

GENERAL EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

Into how many classes may words be divided, in respect to their formation?—Define each, and give an example of each. How are they divided, in respect to inflection?—Define each, and give an example of each. How are words divided in respect to signification and use?—Define each, and give an example of each.

Into what classes are nouns divided?—Define each, and give an example.—Into what classes are *common nouns* subdivided? Give an example of each.—Into what classes are abstract nouns divided? Describe each, and give an example of each. What are the accidents or properties of nouns.

What is gender?—Why so called?—Name the genders?—Define each, and give a reason for its name.—What are the different methods of denoting the masculine and feminine?—What is the feminine corresponding to brother?—King?—Author?—Heir?—Hero?—Gentleman?—Landlord?—Mention two words which are masculine only.—Two which are feminine only.

What is person?—How many and what persons do nouns have?—What does the 1st person denote?—The 2nd?—The 3rd?

What is number?—How many numbers are there?—What does each denote?—Give the general rule for forming the plural.—Give the 1st special rule.—Give examples of words that form their plural by it.—Repeat the 2nd special rule.—Give examples of words that form their plural by it.—Repeat the 3rd special rule.—Give examples of words that form their plural according to it.—Repeat the 4th special rule.—Give examples of words forming their plural by it.—Repeat the exceptions under each rule.—Mention some nouns that are irregular in the formation of the plural.—Mention some that have different significations, and a different plural for each.—How do compounds generally form the plural?—Give examples.—How are letters, numerical figures, &c., made plural?—How do words adopted from other languages form their plural?—Latin words in *um, is, a, us?*—Give examples.—

Greek words in *a*, *is*, *ou*?—Give examples?—Give some nouns that are used in the plural only?—Some that are used in the singular only?—Some that are alike in both numbers?—Some that are either singular or plural?—Some plural in form, but singular in meaning?—How do proper names with Mrs. prefixed, or with any title preceded by two numerals, form the plural?—Give an example?—When several persons of the same name are spoken of individually, and distinguished by a particular appellation, how is the plural formed?—Give an example.

When persons of different names are spoken of together, and distinguished by a particular appellation, how is the plural formed?—In what case is usage unsettled?—Give examples of cases in which usage is unsettled, and state the different ways of forming the plural in such cases?

What is case?—Why so called?—Name the cases?—Which case denotes the *subject?*—Which the *object?*—Which denotes possession?—What does the objective follow?—Give a sentence containing an example of each. Spell the possessive singular and plural of *friend*—of *dove*—of *eagle*. May there be more than one nominative to a verb?—May there be more than one objective after a verb or preposition?—Give an example. For what is the independent case used?—Form a sentence with a nominative, a possessive, an objective, and an independent in it.

Give the order of parsing the noun.—Repeat the rules of Syntax for the nominative case and give sentences containing examples to illustrate each.—Repeat the rules for the possessive and give sentences containing examples to illustrate each.—Repeat the rules for the objective and give sentences containing examples to illustrate each.—Repeat the rule for the independent case, and give sentences containing examples of the independent case, by address by pleonasm, before a participle, by exclamation.

THE ADJECTIVE.

175. An adjective is a word used to *qualify* or *limit* the meaning of a noun; as, "A *good* boy;" "*that* box;" "*ten* dollars;" "we found him *poor*."

176. A noun is *qualified* or *limited* by an adjective, when the object named is thereby *described*, *limited*, or *distinguished* from other things of the same name. This is done in two ways:—

1. Certain adjectives connect with their nouns some *quality* by which the objects named are described or distinguished from others of the same kind; as, "A *red*

flag;" "an *amusing* story." Such are *qualifying* adjectives.

2. Others merely limit, without expressing any quality; as, "An *American* book;" "*ten* dollars;" "*last* week;" "*this* year;" "*every* day," &c. Such are *limiting* or *defining* adjectives.

177. Adjectives, as predicates, may qualify an infinitive, a pronoun, a clause of a sentence used as a substantive, &c,; as "*To play* is *pleasant*."—"*He is unhappy*."—"*That the rich are happy* is not always *true*."

178. Several adjectives sometimes qualify the same noun; as, "A *smooth round* stone."

179. An adjective is sometimes used to qualify the meaning of another adjective, the two forming a sort of compound adjective; as, "A *bright red* color;" "a *dark-blue* coat;" a *cast-iron* ball."

180. When other parts of speech are used to qualify or limit a noun or pronoun, they perform the part of an adjective, and should be parsed as such; thus

Noun; as, A *gold* ring; *silver* cup, *sea* water, a *stone* bridge.

Pronouns; as, A *he* bear: a *she* wolf.

Adverbs; as, Is the child *well?* for *very* age; the *then* king.

Prepositions; as, The *above* remark; the *under* side.

181. On the contrary, adjectives without a substantive are sometimes used as nouns; as, "God rewards the *good*, and punishes the *bad*."—"The *virtuous* are the most *happy*." Adjectives used in this way are usually preceded by *the*, and when applied to persons, are for the most part considered plural.

CLASSIFICATION OF ADJECTIVES.

182. Adjectives are divided into various classes corresponding to the various ways in which they affect the meaning of the nouns to which they belong, and the manner in which they are used.

The most useful general classification is, perhaps, into the two following:—

1. *Qualifying* or *Descriptive*, including all adjectives used to express a *quality* or *property* of the noun.

2. *Limiting* or *Defining* adjectives, including all words joined to nouns to *define*, or in any way *limit*, their meaning.

Under the general head of *Qualifying* or *Descriptive* adjectives, may be classed:—

1. *Proper Adjectives*,—Those derived from proper nouns; as, *Canadian, British.*
2. *Verbal* or *Participial*,—Those derived from verbs; as, *seeing, written, having seen.*
3. *Adverbial*,—Those expressing a quality resulting from the action of the verb and affecting the meaning of both the noun and the verb, with which it is connected; as, "He painted the door *green*." "He rubbed the *silver bright*."

Under the general head of *limiting* or *defining* adjectives, may be classed:—

1. *Ordinal Numeral.*—Those used in *numbering; first, second, third.*
2. *Cardinal Numeral.*—Those used in *counting;* as, *one, two, three.*
3. *Indefinite Numeral.*—Those which do not denote any exact number; such as, *all, any, some, few, other, several, certain, divers.*
4. *Multiplicative Numerals.*—Those which indicate the repetition of the noun; as, *twofold*, &c.
5. *Distributive.*—Those which point out *separately* and singly the objects that make up a number; They are, *each, every, either, neither.*
6. *Demonstrative.*—Those that point out their nouns precisely to the exclusion of all others; They are, *this, these, that, those*, the words *former* and *latter*,—the indefinite article "*a*" or "*an*" usually limiting the noun to a class of things to the exclusion of all other classes,—the definite article "*the*" usually limiting the noun to a particular individual of the class to the exclusion of others,—the word *yon*, as, "*Yon* tall cliff;" *which, what*, before a noun; as, "*which* things are an allegory," "take *what* book you please.
7. *Interrogative.*—The words *which* and *what* joined to nouns in asking questions; as, "*what* book is that?" "*which* horse will you take?"
8. *Exclamatory.*—The word *what*, &c., joined to a noun in making an exclamation; as, "*what* misery they must endure!"

183. When any of the words here classed as adjectives, are not joined to nouns, but stand instead of nouns, they will, of course, be parsed not as adjectives but as *pronouns.*

184. THE LIMITING ADJECTIVES AN and THE.

Two of the limiting adjectives *an* and *the* are so frequently used that, under the name *Article*, they have often been regarded as a separate Part of Speech.

185. A is used before a consonant; as, *a book;* also before a vowel, or diphthong, which combines with its sound the power of initial *y*, or *w;* as, *a unit, a use, a eulogy, a ewe,* many *a one.*

186. *An* is used before a vowel or silent *h;* as, *an age, an hour;* also before words beginning with *h* sounded, when the accent is on the second syllable; as, *an heroic* action *an historical* account; because *h* in such words is but slightly sounded.

187. NOTE.—The primary form of this article is *An* (*ane.*) The *n* has been dropped before a consonant, from regard to euphony.

188. *A* or *an* is sometimes used in the sense of *one, each, every;* as, "Six cents *a* pound;" "two shillings *a* yard;" "one dollar *a* day;" four hundred *a* year."

189. REMARK.—In the expressions *a hunting, a fishing, a going, a running, a building,* and the like; also, in the expressions, now nearly obsolete, "*a Wednesdays,*" "*a nights,*" "*a pieces,*" &c., *a* is equivalent to *at, to, in, on,* and is to be regarded, not as an article, but as a preposition. In the same sense, it is used as a prefix in such words as *afloat, ashore, asleep, abed,* &c.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

190. Adjectives which express qualities, that admit of degress, have *three degress of comparison;* the *Positive*, the *Comparative*, and the *Superlative.*

191. The *Positive* expresses a quality simply without reference to other degrees of the same quality; as, "Gold is *heavy.*"

192. The *Comparative* expresses a quality in a higher degree in one object than in

another or in several taken together; as, "Gold is *heavier* than silver." "He is *wiser* than his teachers."

193. The *Superlative* expresses a quality in one object, in the highest degree, compared with several others; as, "Gold is the *most precious* of the metals."

194. REMARK.—The superlative degree, when made by prefixing the adverb *most*, is often used to express a very high degree of a quality in an object, without directly comparing it with others; as, "He is a *most distinguished* man." Thus used, it is called *the superlative* of *eminence*, and commonly has *a* or *an* before it, if the noun is singular; and is without an article, if the noun is plural. The same thing may be expressed by prefixing the adverb *very, exceedingly*, &c.; as, "a *very distinguished* man;" "*very distinguished* men." The superlative of comparison commonly has *the* before it.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

195. Adjectives of one syllable form the comparative by adding *er* to the positive, and the superlative by adding *est;* as, *sweet, sweeter, sweetest.*

Words ending in *e* mute, drop *e* before *er* and *est;* ar *large, larger, largest.* (68).

196. Adjectives of more than one syllable, are commonly compared by prefixing *more* and *most* to the positive; as, *numerous, more numerous, most numerous.*

197. REMARK.—Though these rules indicate the prevailing usage, yet adjectives of two syllables are not unfrequently compared by *er* and *est;* as, "Our *tenderest* cares;" "The *commonest* materials," and some adjectives of one syllable, as, *wise, apt, fit,* &c., from regard to euphony or taste, are sometimes compared by *er* and *est;* as, *able, abler, ablest.* All adjectives in *y* after a consonant, change *y* into *i* before *er* and *est;* as, *dry, drier, driest; happy, happier, happiest;* but *y* after a vowel is not changed; as, *gay, gayer, gayest.*

198. A lower degree of a quality in one object compared with

another, and the lowest compared with several others, is expressed by prefixing *less* and *least* to the positive; as, *sweet, less sweet, least sweet.* This, by way of distinction, is sometimes called the comparison of diminution, or comparison descending.

199. The meaning of the positive is sometimes diminished without employing comparison, by annexing the syllable *ish;* as, *white, whitish; black, blackish.* These may be called diminutive adjectives. So also various shades, degrees, or modifications of quality are frequently expressed by connecting with the adjective, such words as *rather, somewhat, slightly, a little, too, very, greatly,* &c., and, in the comparative and superlative, by such words as *much, far, altogether, by far,* &c.

200. Such adjectives as *superior, inferior, exterior, interior,* &c., though derived from Latin comparatives, and involving the idea of comparison, are not considered the comparative degree in English, any more than such words as *preferable, previous,* &c. They have neither the form nor the construction of the comparative.

IRREGULAR COMPARISON.

201. The following adjectives are compared irregularly, viz.:

Positive.	*Comparative.*	*Superlative.*
Good	better	best
Bad, evil, *or* ill	worse	worst
Little	less (*sometimes* lesser)	least
Much *or* many	more	most
Late	later (*irregular*, latter)	latest *or* last
Near	nearer	nearest *or* next
Far	farther	farthest
Forth (obsolete)	further	furthest
Fore	former	foremost *or* first
Old	older *or* elder	oldest *or* eldest

202. *Much*, is applied to things weighed or measured; *many*, to things that are numbered; *more* and *most*, to both. *Farther* and *farthest* generally denote place or distance; as, "The *farther* they went, the more interesting was the scene;" *further* and *furthest* refer to quantity or addition; as, "I have nothing *further* to say." *Older* and *oldest* are applied to persons or things, and refer to age or duration; as, "Homer is an *older* poet than Virgil;" "The pyramids are *older* than the pantheon." *Elder* and *eldest* (from the obsolete *eld)* are applied only to persons of the same family,

and denote priority of birth; as, "An *elder* brother." *Later* and *latest* have respect to time; *latter* and *last* to position or order.

203. Some superlatives are formed by annexing *most*, sometimes to the comparative, and sometimes to the word from which the comparative is formed; as, *upper, uppermost* or *upmost* from *up; nether, nethermost; inner, innermost*, or *inmost*, from *in; hinder, hindermost*, or *hindmost*, from *hind; outer, outermost*, or *utmost*, from *out*.

ADJECTIVES NOT COMPARED.

204. Adjectives whose signification does not admit of increase or diminution, can not properly be compared. These are—

1. *Numerals;* as, *one, two, third, fourth*, &c.
2. *Proper* adjectives; as, *English, American, Roman.*
3. Adjectives that denote *figure, shape*, or *material;* as, *circular, square, wooden*, &c.
4. Such adjectives as denote *posture* or *position;* as, *perpendicular, horizontal.*
5. *Definitives;* as, *each, every, all, some*, &c.
6. Adjectives of an *absolute* or *superlative* signification; as, *true, perfect, universal, chief, extreme, infinite, complete.*

205. REMARK.—Of these last, however, comparative and superlative forms are sometimes used, either to give greater force to the expression, or when the words are used in a sense not strictly absolute or superlative. The following are examples:

Extreme.—"The *extremest* of evils."—*Bacon.* "The *extremest* verge."—*Shaks.* "His extremest state."—*Spencer.* [So in Greek ἐσχατώτατος.]

Chief.—"*Chiefest* of the herdsmen."—*Bible.* "*Chiefest* courtier."—*Shaks.* "First and *Chiefest*."—*Milton.*

Perfect.—"Having *more perfect* knowledge of that way," i.e., knowledge nearer to perfection.—*Bible.* So, "The *most perfect* society."—*E. Everett.* "*Less perfect* imitations."—*Macaulay.*

More complete, most complete, less complete, are common.

SYNTAX OF THE ADJECTIVE.

VIII. Every adjective and adjective word qualifies or limits some noun expressed or

understood; as, "A *good* boy;" "*that* house;" "A man *loved* by all."

IX.—Participles, when not joined with the auxiliaries *have* or *to be*, and taken as verbs, have the construction of verbal nouns, or verbal adjectives, as,

"*Saying* is not *doing*."—"In the *keeping* of his commandments."—"A *forsaking* of the truth."—"Avoid *doing* evil."—"The sword hangs *rusting* on the wall."—"A *bound* book."—"The *lost* sheep." "*Having loved* his own, he loved them to the end."—"The men stood speechless, *hearing* a voice, but *seeing* no man."

X. Adjectives denoting ONE, limit nouns in the singular; adjectives denoting *more than one*, limit nouns in the plural; as, "This *man*;" "six *feet*."

ORDER OF PARSING THE ADJECTIVE.

Descriptive. / Limiting. } Adj. — Positive. / Compar. / Super. } Degree. — Belonging to or agreeing with the noun, &c. —*Rule.*

EXAMPLE.—"*Some* men are *taller* than others"

Some is a limiting adjective, indefinite numeral, and belongs to the noun *men*, according to rule VIII. (Repeat it.)

Taller is a qualifying adjective; compared *tall, taller, tallest*, comparative degree, and qualifies the noun *men*, according to rule VIII. (Repeat it.)

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS ON THE ADJECTIVE.

Define the Adjective. Into what two general classes are Adjectives divided? What classes are given under the general head of Qualifying Adjectives? Give sentences containing an example of each kind. What classes are giving under the general head of Limiting Adjectives? Give sentences containing an example of each. What is the general rule for comparing adjectives of one syllable? The rule for comparing adjectives of more than one syllable? What departure from these rules does usage allow us to make? How is a lower degree than the positive usually expressed? Is there any other method of varying the degree of quality expressed by the adjective? Compare good, bad, little, much, late, near

forth, fore, old. What distinction is made in the use of the following adjectives, viz.: much, many, more, most; farther, farthest; further, furthest; older, oldest; elder, eldest; later, latest; latter, last? What classes of adjectives do not admit of comparison? What departures from this are authorized? Repeat the rules of Syntax for the Adjective. Repeat the order of parsing the Adjective. In the sentence, "Some men are taller than others," parse "*some*" and "*taller.*"

7TH EXERCISE.

ADJECTIVE.

In the following sentences parse the Adjectives according to the form and example given above.

Milton and Cowper are poets of the highest rank. The greatest men are not always the best A benevolent man helps the indigent. Each individual fills a space in creation. There are seven days in a week. The long grass of the American prairies sometimes catches fire. The distant mountain, seen through the blue mist, alone remained. Toiling, rejoicing, sorrowing, onward through life we go. Heaven opened wide her ever-during gates. Children just let loose from school. The first fleet contained three hundred men. Numbers are expressed by ten Arabic characters. Few young people like seclusion. I have some fine trees in the garden. He has a threefold duty to perform. He performed each part with the most consummate skill. Read this lecture four times. That book belongs to you, this belongs to me. The former lecture was the best. What time the year puts on her bloom thou fliest the vocal vale. Unto which promise our twelve tribes hope to come. Which road did he take. What man do you mean. What havoc thou hast made, foul monster, sin! He is never overbearing. This house is colder than yours. I saw her several times. The best fruits grow in warm countries. England expects every man to do his duty. Which of these large oranges will you have.

Go over this exercise again and point out the *Verb* and *Subject* in each sentence, and give the *construction* of all the other words, parsing the *nouns in full*, according to the form.

PRONOUNS.

206. A PRONOUN is a word used to supply the place of a noun; as, "*John* is a good boy; *he* is dilligent in *his* studies."

207. The noun, for which a pronoun is used, is called its *antecedent*, because the pronoun refers to it as *previously mentioned*, or in some way understood.

208. Pronouns of the third person are used in writing, and speaking, to prevent the frequent and awkward repetition of the noun. Thus, without the pronoun, the above example would read, "*John* is a good boy; *John* is diligent in *John's* studies." A pronoun is sometimes used instead of another pronoun; as, *You* and *I* must attend to *our* duty.

209. Pronouns may be divided into *Personal, Relative, Interrogative, and Possessive.*

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

210. *Personal Pronouns* are simple substitutes for the names of persons and things, having a distinct form for each person.

They are either *simple* or *compound.*

SIMPLE PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

211. The simple personal pronouns are *I, you or thou, he, she, it;* with their plurals, *we, you or ye, they.*

212. Of these, *I* is of the first person, and denotes the *speaker; you* is of the second, and denotes the *person spoken to; he, she, it,* are of the third, and denote the person or thing *spoken of.*

213. The pronoun *I* denotes the speaker, and *you* the person addressed, without previous mention, or even knowledge of their names, the persons intended, being sufficiently indicated by their presence, or some other circumstance. The pronouns of the third person refer to some person or thing previously mentioned, or easily understood from the context, or from the nature of the sentence.

214. *He, she, it,* and *they,* are frequently used as general terms in the beginning of a sentence, equivalent to "the person," &c., without reference to a noun going before; as, "He [the person]

that loveth pleasure shall be a poor man." "How far is it [the distance] to the city?"

215. *They* is also used in a vague sense for "people," in such expressions as "They say," [like the French *on*, or the German *man*.]

Personal pronouns are thus declined:—

		SINGULAR.			PLURAL.	
	Nom.	*Poss.*	*Obj.*	*Nom.*	*Poss.*	*Obj.*
1.	*M.* or *F.* I	my	me	We	our	us
2.	*M.* or *F.* You*	your	you	You	your	you
3.	*Masc.* He	his	him	They	their	them
	Fem. She	her	her	They	their	them
	Neut. It	its	it	They	their	them

OBSERVATIONS ON PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

216. *You* was formerly used exclusively in the plural number, but it is now the singular pronoun, as well as the plural, it still however, takes a plural verb. "*Thou*" is now used only in the solemn style, and sometimes in poetry. "*Ye*" is seldom used.

Thou is thus declined:—

SINGULAR.			PLURAL.		
Nom.	*Poss.*	*Obj.*	*Nom.*	*Poss.*	*Obj.*
Thou	thy or thine	thee	Ye	your	you or ye.

217. There are three views taken by different grammarians, of the pronouns *mine, thine, his, hers, ours, yours, theirs;* and *my, thy, his, her, our, your, their.*

1st. That the long forms *mine, thine,* &c., are the *possessive cases* of the personal pronouns; and the short forms, *my, thy,* &c., are Possessive pronouns. (Meaning by this Possessive Adjectives.)

2nd. That neither of them are to be regarded as a distinct class of pronouns, both forms being the *possessive cases* of the personal pronouns, the short forms, *my, thy,* &c., being used when the noun possessed is expressed in connection with them, and the long forms being used when the noun is omitted.

3rd. That the long forms, *mine, thine,* &c., are a distinct class of pronouns, that is, *possessive pronouns,* used in the *nominative* or *objective* case, but *never* in the *possessive;* and, that the short forms *my, thy,* &c., are simply the *possessive cases* of the personal pronouns.

The *first* of these views, though the one adopted by the author of this grammar, is, we think, obviously incorrect, and farthest of all from the truth.

To the *second* view, there is perhaps little ground of objection,

but, in its practical application, it is scarcely satisfactory so far as the long forms, *mine, thine,* &c., are concerned, because these words, as used in construction, always represent a noun in the nominative or objective case, so that, if they do include the *possessor,* they certainly, also stand for, or include the thing possessed. If we must choose which of the things represented by them, shall determine their character, their office as representing the thing possessed would appear to be of more importance in the construction of the sentence, than their office as representing the possessor, which is, *grammatically,* but a mere *appendage* to the thing possessed. We, therefore, prefer the third view, as being *more simple,* and, upon the whole, according better than either of the others, with the true construction of the words.

218. The pronoun *it* is used in a variety of ways:—

1. Properly it is used instead of a neuter noun, or any thing used as a neuter noun; as, "*Life* is short; *it* should be well improved." "James is a good scholar, and he knows *it.*"
2. It is used as an indefinite subject of the verb *to be,* followed by a predicate in any person or number; as, "*It* is *I;*" "*It* is *you;*" "*It* is *they,*" &c.
3. It is used in the same manner after the verb *to be* in interrogative sentences; as, "Who is *it?*" "What is *it?*" &c.
4. It is prefixed as an introductory subject to such verbs as *to be, to happen, to become,* and the like, referring to an infinitive mood, or substantive phrase, or clause which follows the verb, and is its true subject; as, "*It* is an honor for a man *to cease from strife;*" i.e., To cease from strife is an honor for a man. "*It* has been proved, *that the earth revolves on its axis;*" i.e., *It,* namely, *that the earth revolves on its axis,* has been proved.
5. It is used indefinitely before certain verbs, to denote some cause unknown,—or general,—or well known, whose action is expressed by the verb; as, "*It* rains;" "*It* snows;" "*It* thunders;" "*It* is cold;" "*It* is hot," &c. Verbs before which *it* is thus used, are said to be impersonal.
6. It is sometimes used as a mere expletive; as, "Come and trip *it* as you go."

219. The possessives, *hers, its, ours, yours, theirs,* should never be written *her's, it's, our's, your's, their's.*

220. *His* and *its,* before a noun, are the *possessive case;* without a noun following, they are the *possessive pronouns. Her* before a noun, is the possessive case; without a noun, it is the objective case.

COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

221. *Myself* (*ourself*), *yourself* (*thyself*), *himself*, *herself*, *itself*, with their plurals, *ourselves*, *yourselves*, *themselves*, are called *Compound Personal Pronouns.* They are used only in the nominative and the objective. In the nominative they are emphatic, and are added to their respective personal pronouns, or are used instead of them; as, "I *myself* did it." "*Himself* shall come." In the objective they are *reflexive*, showing that the agent is also the object of his own act; "Judas went and hanged *himself*."

222. The simple pronouns, also, are sometimes used in a reflexive sense; as, "Thou hast hewed *thee* out a sepulchre, as he that heweth *him* out a sepulchre on high."—*Bible.*

223. *Ourself* and *yourself* are used as compounds, corresponding to *we* and *you*, applied to an individual; as, "We *ourself* will follow."—*Shaks.* "You must do it *yourself*."

224. The possessive is rendered *emphatic* and *reflexive*, by adding the word *own* to the possessive cases *my*, *thy*, *his*, *her*, &c.; as, "God created man in *his own* image."

225. *One* is also used in combination with any, every, some, no, &c. as an Indefinite Personal Pronoun; as, *any one*, *some one*, *no one*, &c.

226. The demonstrative adjectives, *this*, *that*, &c., the indefinite adjectives, *some*, *any*; and the distributive adjectives, *either*, *neither*, and others are frequently used as *pronouns*; as, "*This* is the best." "*Some* were left." "I did not take *any*." "*All* must die," &c. When so used they should be parsed as *demonstrative*, *indefinite*, or *distributive* pronouns.

SYNTAX OF THE PRONOUN.

The Pronoun has Double Syntax—for *case*; and for *gender*, *person*, and *number*.

The Syntax for case is the same as the noun; for gender, person, and number, the rule is:—

XI. Pronouns must agree with the nouns for which they stand, in gender, person, and number; as, "All that a *man* hath will *he* give for *his* life." "A *tree* is known by *its* fruit."

ORDER OF PARSING THE PRONOUN.

Per.
Rel.
Int.
Pos.
} Pro. — Mas. Fem. Neu. } Gen. — 1st 2nd 3rd } Per. — Sin. Plu. } Num. — Nom. Poss. Obj. Ind. } Case.

Rule.

(To agree with its anteeedent, according to RULE X.)

EXAMPLES.—"*Your* knife is sharper than *mine;* lend *it* to *me* till *I* mend *my* pen."

Your—a personal pronoun, second, sing., to agree with the person speaking, according to RULE X., and possessive case, according to RULE IV.

Mine—is a Possessive Pronoun, first, sing., to agree with the person speaking, according to Rule X., and nominative to the verb *is*, (understood) according to RULE 1st.

It —a personal pronoun, neut., third, sing., to agree with its antecedent, *knife* according to Rule X., and objective case to the verb lend, according to Rule V.

QUESTIONS ON THE PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

What is a pronoun?—What is the antecedent of a pronoun?—Into what classes are pronouns dvided?—How do you define a personal pronoun?—Into what two classes are personal pronouns divided?—Repeat the simple personal pronouns?—For what purpose is I, thou, you, used?—Decline I, you, she?—Besides standing for a neuter noun, what may the pronoun *it* represent?—What are the compound personal pronouns?—How are they used?—Give examples showing how they are used?—How is a possessive rendered emphatic?—What double Syntax has the Pronoun?—Give the rules of Syntax for the Pronoun?—Repeat the form given for parsing the Pronoun?—In the sentence, "When you learn the lesson, come to me, and I will hear you say it;" parse all the pronouns, according to the Form.

8TH EXERCISE.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

Give, without hesitation, the objective singular of I, *he, she.* Objective plural of *thou it, he.* Possessive singular of *I, we, you.* Give without hesitation, the person, number, and case of *thou, I us, me, she, they, her, you, them, its,* &c.

Parse the pronouns in the following sentence according to the form and example given.

John lost his own books and injured mine. The mountains themselves decay with years. We must not forget to improve ourselves. I hope you will come to see us soon. It is your own fault. He found the children, and brought them to their home. James says he is older than I; but I am taller than he.—That book is mine; take it and read it.—Let them do it themselves.—When you learn the lesson, come to me, and I will hear you say it.—They will go when we return.—Thou art the man.—Your knife is sharper than mine; lend it me, if you please, till I mend my pen.

Write sentences, each of which shall contain a pronoun in the nominative case—in the possessive case—in the objective case.

Go over this exercise again and *parse*, as already *directed*, the *Nouns*, *Adjectives* and *Pronouns;* and give the construction of all the other words.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

227. A *Relative Pronoun*, or, more properly, a *Conjunctive Pronoun*, is one which, in addition to being a substitute for the name of a person or thing, connects its clause with the antecedent, which it is introduced to describe or modify; as, "The master *who* taught us is dead."—"This is the person *whom* we met."

228. The antecedent of a relative may be a noun—a pronoun—an infinitive mood—a clause of a sentence—or any fact or thing implied in it; as, "A *king*, *who* is just, makes his people happy;" "*He that* is wise, is wise for himself;" "He who reads all will not be able *to think*, without *which* it is impertinent to read; nor *to act*, without *which* it is impertinent to think;" "We are bound *to obey the Divine law*, *which* we cannot do, without Divine aid;" "The man was said to be *innocent*, *which* he was not."

229. The Relative Pronouns are *who*, *which*, *that*, and *what*.

Who is masculine or feminine, *which*, *what*, and *that* are either masculine, feminine, or neuter. *What* and *that* are not declined. *Who* and *which* are declined thus:—

Nominative	Who	Which
Possessive	Whose	Whose
Objective	Whom	Which

230. *Who* is applied to persons only; as, "The boy *who* reads."

231. *Which* is applied to inferior animals, and things without life; as, "The dog *which* barks."—"The book *which* was lost."

232. The relative *which*, as in Latin, sometimes, for the sake of greater perspicuity, has its antecedent repeated after it; as, "I gave him a knife with an ivory handle, *which knife* he still has." This construction, however, is inelegant, and should be avoided.

233. *Which* is applied also to nouns, expressing collections of persons, when the reference is to the collection, and not to the persons composing it; as, "The *committee* which met this morning, decided it."

234. *Which* has for its possessive *whose;* as, "A religion *whose* origin is Divine." Instead of "whose," however, the objective with *of* before it is more common; as, "A religion, the origin *of which*, is Divine."

235. *That* is applied to both persons and things; as, "The *boy that* reads;" "The *dog that* barks;" "The *book that* was lost."

236. *That* is used as a Relative.

1. To prevent who or which from occurring too often.

2. After the superlative degree of an adjective; as, "The *most that* was done."

3. When two antecedents, one requiring *who*, the other *which*, are followed by a sin-

gle relative clause; as, "The *cattle* and the *sailors, that* were on board, were lost.

237. *What* is applied to *things* only, and is used when the antecedent, from its indefiniteness, is necessarily omitted; as, "Take *what* you want."

238. What, as used in this example, is by many grammarians called a *Compound Relative*, equivalent to *thing which*, that is, including both the *antecedent* and the *relative*. There is, however, no necessity for resorting to such an expedient to explain the use of "what." It appears to be used when the thing referred to is too indefinite to be named, and can only be introduced by using a clause describing it. The whole clause in that case represents a noun in its relation to the sentence with which it is connected, and should be treated as any other substantive clause, or noun sentence, as such clauses may properly be called. It might be asked, what is gained by calling "what" a compound relative standing for "*thing which?*" In the example "I hear *what* you say," the clause "*what you say*" is used as the direct objective of the verb hear; and in the sentence, "Who steals my purse steals trash," the whole sentence "who steals my purse" is nominative to the verb "steals." Is any "*thing*" more required by either *grammar*, *sense*, or *perspicuity?* Does not the same principle apply to such sentences as the following? Let us consider (how much depends upon it); do you know (by whom that house was built); I discovered (who was neglecting his duty). In each of these sentences, the whole clause in brackets stands asthe objective to the verb in the principal clause. To supply the word *thing* or any other word, would serve no other purpose, than to impose upon the dependent clause, the servile duty of describing the usurper of its own rightful position, instead of occupying the position itself. Why not, on the same principle of analysis, before parsing it, turn the sentence, "I do not know who it can be," into "I do not know the *person* who it can be." The real question, with respect to "*what*," as thus used, is whether it should not be classed as an *Indefinite Relative*. It connects clauses as a relative, but has no reference to anything in the previous clause as its antecedent.

239. The relative, *Who*, is sometimes used in the same manner as *What*, in the above example; as, "I do not know *who* stole your watch." *Which*, also, is sometimes used in a manner nearly similar; but, in such cases, may always be treated as an adjective; as, Take *which* you please, that is, which book, &c.

240. "Ever" is sometimes added to who, which, and what, used in this manner to give them a more *distributive* and *indefinite* signification; as, "Think *whatever* you please." "*Whoever* thinks so does him great injustice." "Soever" is sometimes (though now rarely) used to render the meaning still more emphatically distributive; as, "*Whosoever* will, let him come," &c. *Whoso*, formerly used in the sense of whoever, or whosoever, is now obsolete.

241. In old writings, the antecedent word is sometimes expressed, either before or after the compound relative, for the sake of greater emphasis or precision; as, "Blessed is *he, whosoever* shall not be offended in me."—*Eng. Bible.* "*Whosoever* will, let *him* take the water of life." This usage, however, is now nearly obsolete, except with the word *whatever;* as, "*Whatever* you do, let *it* be done well."

242. *What, whatever, whatsoever,* and *which, whichever,* and *whichsoever,* are often used before substantives, as a sort of indefinite adjective; as, "*What* money we had, was taken away." "*Whatever* course you take, act uprightly." When thus used, the noun is sometimes placed between *what, which,* or *whose* and *soever*; as, "*What* course *soever*"—"Into *whose* house *soever* ye enter."

243. The office of the relative is twofold:

1. It is sometimes merely *additive* or *descriptive,* being used to connect its clause with the antecedent, for the purpose of further describing, without modifying it; thus used, it is a mere connective, nearly equivalent to *and* with a personal pronoun *he, she, it,* &c.; as, "Light is a body *which* moves with great celerity"= "Light is a body, *and it* moves with great celerity."

2. It is more commonly *restrictive,* and connects its clause with the antecedent, in order to modify or restrict its meaning; as, "Every thing *which has life* is an animal"—"Every *living* thing is an animal." When used in this way, the relative can not be resolved into *and* with a personal pronoun, for we can not say, "Every thing is an animal, *and it* has life."

244. The relative *who* and *which* are used in both senses. "*That*" is used in restrictive, more commonly than in addition clauses.

245. In English, the relative must always be in the same sentence with its antecedent, and, if restrictive, in close connection with it. In Latin, the relative has often its antecedent, in a preceding sentence, and connected with it by a conjunctive term. When this is the case, it should be rendered into English by a demonstrative or

personal pronoun. This difference of idiom should be carefully marked by classical students.

246. In such sentences as the following—"Shun such *as* are vicious"—Send such as you have"—some grammarians consider the word *as* a relative; in the first example, as the nominative to *are;* and in the second, as the objective, governed by *have.* Others regard it, in all such sentences, as a conjunction, and the expressions as eliptical—to be supplied thus: "Shun such *as* [those who] are vicious."—Send such *as* [those which] you have." It is of little importance which view is taken. If, taken as a *relative,* the ellipsis is lost sight of, as in many other elliptical forms of expression, and the language taken just as it stands.

The Syntax of the *relative pronoun* is the same as of the *personal;* and the order of parsing is also the same.

9TH EXERCISE.

Write sentences containing examples of all the relatives used correctly, especially the relative *that.*

In the following sentences, parse the relatives according to the form and example, given for the personal pronouns.

A man who is generous will be honoured.—God, by whose kindness we live, whom we worship, who created all things, is eternal.—That is the book which I lost.—He who steals my purse, steals trash.—This is the boy whom we met. This is the man, that did it.—These are the books, that you bought.—The person who does no good, does harm.—The woman, who was hurt is well.—This is the cat that killed the rat, that ate the malt, that lay in the house, that Jack built.

Whoever steals my purse, steals trash.—Whoever does no good, does harm.—Whatever purifies the heart, fortifies it. Whatsoever ye would, that men should do to you, do ye to them also.—Whoever sins, will suffer.—I love whoever loves me.—Now whatsoever, God hath said to thee, do.

3. In the following sentences, wherever it can be done, change the relative and antecedent, for the indefinite relative:—

Bring with you every thing which you see.—Any one, who told such a story, has been misinformed.—Any thing that is worth doing at all, is worth doing well.—Any thing that gives pain to others, deserves not the

name of pleasure.—Every one who loves pleasure, will be a poor man.

Go over this exercise again and distinguish between the principal and subordinate clauses, and point out the relation between them.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

247. *Who*, *which* and *what*, when used with verbs in asking questions, are called *Interrogative Pronouns;* as, "*Who* is there?" —"*Which* will you take?"—"*What* did he say?"

Who is declined like the relative.

248. In questions, *who* is equivalent to *what person;* when *which* and *what* have a noun following, they are not pronouns but adjectives; as, "Which book will you take?"

249. *Who* applies to persons only; *which* and *what*, to persons or things.

250. When applied to persons, *who* inquires for the name; *which*, for the individual; *what*, for the character or occupation; as, "*Who* wrote that book?"—"Mr. Webster."—*Which* of them?"—"*Noah* Webster."—"*What* is he?"—"A lexicographer."

251. The same pronouns used responsively, in the beginning of a dependent clause, or in what is called the indirect question (i.e., in a way which, in an independent clause, would be a direct question), are properly neither *interrogatives* nor *relatives*, in the usual sense, but a sort of *indefinite* relative pronoun, and this is the view we would prefer to take, as we have already said of the words, "*whatever*," &c., usually called compound relatives. This will be best illustrated by an example:—

Interrogative.—"*Who* wrote that letter?"

Relative.—"I know the person, *who* wrote that letter;" that is, I am acquainted with him.

Indefinite Relative.—"I know *who* wrote that letter;" that is, I know by whom that letter was written.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

RELATIVE AND INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

What is a relative pronoun?—What words are used as relative pronouns?—Decline "who."—To what are *who* and *which* applied?—To what are *that* and *what* applied?—Under what circumstances is *that* as a relative to be preferred to who or which?—In the sentence "Take what you want," state what is the objective to the verb take.—What is the nominative to the verb *injures*, in the sentence, "Whoever deceives a friend, injures himself."—What is the object of the verb *conceal* in the sentence "What he knows he will conceal?"—Why is it not necessary to make *what*, *whatever*, &c., represent both the antecedent and the relative?—What is suggested as the best name for *what*, *whatever*, &c., when not used as simple relatives?—Is *who* ever used as an indefinite relative? Give an example.—What is the effect of *ever* attached to these pronouns? What is the force of *so* prefixed to the *ever?* Illustrate this by an example.—Are *what*, *whatever*, &c., ever used as adjectives? Give examples.—Give an example of a relative, used in an additive clause.—Givean example of the relative, used in a restrictive clause.—How do you distinguish the one from the other?—Give an example of *as*, so used, that it may be considered a relative.—Are *which*, and *what*, used in asking questions, always interrogative pronouns?—Give examples illustrating their use as interrogative pronouns, and as interrogative adjectives.—In asking questions, to what is *who*, *which*, and *what* applied?—When applied to persons, what does *who*, *which*, and *what* enquire for?—In the sentence "I know who wrote that letter," how would you parse *who*, and what would you say is the objective of the verb *know?*—In the sentence "Your pleasures are past, mine are come," how would you parse *your* and *mine?* Repeat the rules of Syntax that apply in parsing the relative *pronouns*. Repeat the order of parsing the relative pronouns.

10TH EXERCISE.

1. In the following classify *who*, *which*, and *what* according to the manner in which they are used, and parse them according to *form*.

Who steals my purse, steals trash.—To whom did you give that book?—What I do, thou knowest not now.—Who you are, what you are, or to whom you belong, no one knows.—What shall I do?—Who built that house?—Do you know by whom that house was built?—Is that the man, who built that house? Which book is yours?—Do you know which book is yours? I saw a book, which was said to be yours?—I know which book is yours.—What in me is dark, illumine.—

What is crooked, can not be made straight.—What is wanting, can not be numbered.—What is wanted?—I know what is wanted.

2. Write sentences, which shall contain examples of the various uses of these pronouns. Classify these sentences into principal and subordinate; and give the construction of the words in each.

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

252. The POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS are *mine, thine, his, hers, ours, yours, theirs,* when they include the possessor and the thing possessed; as, your pleasures are past, *mine* are to come. (See 217.)

The exercise on the personal pronouns, already given, includes the Possessive Pronouns.

THE VERB.

253. A VERB is a word used to make an *assertion:* or, a verb is a word used to *affirm* the *act, being,* or *state,* of its subject; as, "John *runs.*" "The boy *sleeps.*" "He *is loved.*"

254. The essential and distinguishing characteristic of the *verb* is, that it is the word used to make an *assertion;* or, in other words, to *affirm* the act, being, or state of the subject. It is not the distinguishing characteristic of the *verb,* that it expresses *action* or *being.* A word may express *action* or *being,* and not be a verb; as, for instance, "I wish to work." "The boy's manner of *reading* is bad." "That horse *running* through the field is a fine animal." "Call that boy *sitting* by the window," &c. In these examples, "*to work*," "*reading*," and "*running*," express the action of "I," "boy," and "horse;" and "sitting" expresses the state of "*boy;*" but, they *are not verbs;* they are, it is true, words derived from verbs, but are merely used, the first two as *verbal nouns,* and the last two as *verbal adjectives.* A verb, always, either directly or indirectly, makes an assertion, and must have a word standing related to it as the name of the thing, about which the *assertion* is made; a *verbal,* on the contrary, though expressing the action or state of something, and though it may *govern* an *objective,* or be *modified* by an *adverb,* yet, it *never makes an assertion.* It merely assumes the

act or state, which, if used as a verb, it would *assert*, and always stands related to the other words as a noun, or as an adjective. The words thus used as verbals are the *Infinitive* and *Participles;* between these *verbals*, and the verb, the pupil must carefully *distinguish.*

255. The words "*assert*," and "*affirm*," as used in the definition, must be understood as applying to all kinds of sentences, whether *affirmative—I teach; negative—I do not teach; interrogative—do I teach? imperative—teach me;* or *exclamatory—how you teach!*

256. Verbs, in respect to the sense they express, are divided into two kinds—*Transitive* and *Intrasitive.*

257. A *Transitive* verb is one which expresses an action that passes from the agent or doer, to some person or thing which stands as the *object* of the verb in the Active Voice, and the *subject* of the verb in the Passive Voice; as, "James *struck* William." —"William *was struck* by James."

258. It will be observed by examining the above examples, that there are two ways of expressing the same idea; in the first, the doer of the act—"James"—stands as the *subject* of the Verb, and the person to whom the act is done—"William"—stands as the *object* of the Verb. When this form is used, the Verb is in the *Active Voice.* In the second, the person to whom the act is done, —"William"—stands as the subject of the Verb, and the person who does the act,—"James"—stands connected with the Verb, as the object of the preposition "by." When this form is used the Verb is in the *Passive Voice.*

259. *Voice*, then, can only apply to transitive verbs, as it is merely a term used to distinguish between these two methods of expressing the same idea. In the *Active Voice*, the *subject* is represented as acting upon the *object*, and is, therefore, the agent; in the Passive Voice, the *subject* is represented as being acted upon by the *agent.*

260. Obs.—The *Passive Voice*, it will be observed, is always expressed by using the perfect participle with the verb "*to be*," and hence, may always be distinguished from the *Active* by *its form*, as well as by the *sense* expressed.

261. The following advantages arise from these two forms of expression:

1. We can, by the *form* alone, direct attention chiefly, either to the *actor*, or to that which is *acted upon*—to the former, by using the active voice—"God *created* the world,"—to the latter, by using the passive—"The world *was created* by God."

2. By means of the passive voice, we are able to state a fact, when we either do not know, or, for some reason, may not wish to state, by whom the act was done. Thus, we can say, "The glass is broken," though we do not know who broke it; or, if we know, do not wish to tell.

3. By this means, also, we have a variety, and of course, a choice of expression, and may, at pleasure, use that which to us appears the most perspicuous, convenient, or elegant.

262. Some transitive verbs, are sometimes used to express an action, as a quality inherent in the thing which stands to it, in the relation of the subject; but, which is properly neither the agent nor the object; as, "This sentence does not read well."—"The horse *drives* badly in harness." The meaning, in such sentences, is neither *active* nor *passive*, but more properly, what might be called *middle voice*. Sometimes, also, the *active form* of the verb is used to convey a *passive meaning;* as, for instance, "The house *is building*."—"The church *opens* at eleven o'clock."—"A house *to let*." Sometimes, also, the *passive form* is used to convey an active meaning; as, "Year after year it steals till all *are fled*."

263. An *Intransitive Verb* is one which makes an assertion, without expressing action as *done to anything;* as, "The horse *lay* down."—"The boy *ran* across the field."

QUESTIONS ON THE VERB.

What is a verb?—Why is it not sufficiently accurate to say, a verb is a word which signifies to *be*, to *do*, or to *suffer?*—Give examples of words in sentences, expressing being, doing, and suffering, which are not verbs?—State what these words are?—How do you understand the words *assert* and *affirm*, as used in the definition of the verb?—How will you distinguish between a verb and a verbal?—In respect to the nature of the action, into what classes do you divide verbs?—How do you define a transitive verb?—How many

ways are there of presenting the agent or doer of an act, expressed, by a transitive verb?—Illustrate this by an example.—How many ways are there of presenting the thing to which the action expressed by a transitive verb is done?—Illustrate this by an example.—How are the agent and object presented in the *Active Voice*, and how in the *Passive* Voice?—Why cannot an intransitive verb be used in the Passive Voice?—What is always used with the verb *to be*, to form the Passive Voice?—Give an example.—Give an example of a verb, used in a sense, which is properly neither Active nor Passive.—Give an example of a verb in the *active form*, used in a *passive sense*.—Of the *passive form* used in an *active sense*.

11TH EXERCISE.

1. In the words expressing action, distinguish between verbs and verbals.

2. Distinguish between transitive and intransitive verbs.

3. State which of the transitive verbs are in the Active Voice, which in the Passive, and which have an active form, and passive meaning, and which have, properly, neither.

He struck me. We ought not to complain of our lot. They were seen by us. He sat by the wayside. I teach my sister music. The wine tastes sour. He wishes to do right. I have been offered a situation. Let our friends know. Romulus built Rome. Who read last? The sun is rising calm and bright. The serpent having devoured his prey, slept. He undertook to thwart me. I am happy to answer yes. Home is a place, which must be loved by all.

Write a sentence containing transitive and intransitive verbs—verbs in the passive voice—verbs with an active form and passive meaning—verbs used in a sense neither active nor passive. Give, orally, other similar sentences.

MOOD.

264. Mood is a term used to denote the manner in which the verb is employed.

265. Verbs have five* moods; the *Indi-*

*The *Infinitive* and *Participle* are placed among the moods of the verb merely out of deference to custom. It must be understood, however, that they are *moods* of the verb in a *different sense* from the Indicative, Subjunctive, and Imperative: that is, only in the sense, that being derived from verbs, they possess many of the characteristics of the verb. But, what distinguishes them clearly from the verb is, that they are never used to *make an assertion*.

cative, the *Subjunctive*, the *Imperative*, the *Infinitive*, and the *Participial*.

266. The *indicative* mood is that which makes a declaration or asks a question; as, He learns; *Does* he *learn?* He *can learn.*

267. The Indicative Mood has *two forms;* the *common* form and the *potential* form.†

268. The *common form* of the indicative mood is that which *merely* expresses a declaration or an interrogation; as, "He *improves;*"—"*Will* you *go?*"

269. The *potential form* of the indicative is that which makes a declaration or asks a question, and also implies *possibility, liberty, power, determination, obligation, necessity,* etc.; as, "He *can walk;*"—"We *must return;*"—"What *would* they *have?*"

[In speaking of the common form of the indicative, it will generally be found convenient to employ merely the term *indicative mood;* and in speaking of the potential form, to designate it as the *potential indicative.*]

270. *Were* is sometimes used for *would be,* or *should be;* as, "Ah! what *were* man, should Heaven refuse to hear?"

271. *Had* is also occasionally employed for *would have* or *should have:* as, "Had thought been all, sweet speech *had* [*would have*] been denied."—*Young.*

272. The *subjunctive mood* is that which implies *condition, supposition* or *uncertainty;* as, "If he *had* the opportunity, he would

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†The recognition of the potential as a distinctive mood in so many popular grammars, affords a striking example of the power of custom. The expressions, "It may rain," "He may go," "I can ride," &c., are manifestly declarative. "I *can* walk," expresses quite as distinct a declaration as, "I walk." "I can walk," declares that I have the power to walk; while, "I walk," declares the act of walking.

"As to the potential mood, it may, I think, in all cases, be resolved into either the indicative or the subjunctive."—*Beattie's Theory of Language.*

"The forms of expression, *I can go, we may ride, he must obey,* are really declaratory and properly belong to the indicative."—*Webster.*

The potential mode is also rejected by Jamieson, H. Ward, Martin, Coote, Cobbett, Lewis, Hazlitt, Hodgson, St. Quentin, Bell, Barrie, Buchanan, Coar, Tinder, Adam, Arnold, Higginson, Giles, Beall, Pearce, Ross, Nutting, J. P. Wilson, Willard, Hallock, Dearborn, J. Flint, D. Adams, Judson, Puc, Cardell, Cutler, Balch, French, Spencer, and many others.

improve rapidly;"—"Take heed, lest any man *deceive* you."

273. Every verb in the subjunctive implies two propositions; the one *principal*, and the other *subordinate*. The subordinate clause is usually preceded by the conjunction *if*,—subjoining it to the antecedent, or principal clause, on which it depends. Thus, in the sentence, "I will remain if you desire it," the dependent clause, "you desire it," is preceded by the conjunction *if*, which subjoins it to the principal clause, I will remain."

274. The condition of a verb in the subjunctive is sometimes expressed by transposition, without the aid of a conjunction; as, "*Had* he taken the counsel of friends, he would have been saved from ruin."

275. The subjunctive mood, like the indicative, admits of the potential form; as, "He might improve, if he *would make* the necessary effort."

276. The subjunctive mood does not differ, in form, from the indicative except, occasionally, under peculiar circumstances, in the *present tense;* and in the *present* and *past* of the verb "*to be*."

277. In parsing, that only should be called the subjunctive mood, which has the subjunctive form. When the indicative or potential is used subjunctively, it should be so stated.

278. The *Imperative* mood is that which is used to command, exhort, entreat or permit; as, "*Go* thou." "*Study* diligently." "*Forgive* us our trespasses." "*Depart* in peace."

279. The *Infinitive* mode is a verbal noun, usually distinguished by the *sign* "*to*" and expressing action or state, as a thing abstractly considered; as, "I love *to skate*." "*To attempt* it would be vain." "A desire *to learn* is praiseworthy.

280. The infinitive *active*, by an anomaly not uncommon in other languages, is sometimes used in a *passive* sense; as, "You are to blame" (to be blamed)—"A house to *let*"—"A road to *make*"—"Goods made *to sell*"—"Knives *to grind*," &c.

281. The *Participial* mood embraces those forms of the verb called *Participles*, when used as *verbal nouns* or *verbal adjectives:* as, "There is a boy amusing himself." "*Devoted* to study he soon excelled." "On *seeing* me he fled." "There is glory in *dying* for one's country."

TENSE.

282. TENSES are certain forms of the verb which serve to point out the distinctions of time; or, more correctly, Tense is the change in the form of the verb, to show *time* and *state.*

283. Time is naturally divided into the *past*, the *present*, and the *future.* The *past* includes all that goes before the present; the *future* includes all that comes after the present; and the *present*, strictly speaking, is the point in which the past and future meet, and which has, itself, no space or continuance. In grammar, however, the present is not regarded in this strict sense, but, as extending to a greater or less period, of which the passing instant forms a part: as, this *moment*, *hour*, *day*, *week*, *&c.* In each of these, an act, &c., may be expressed, either as going on and *imperfect*, or as completed and *perfect*, and, hence, there are *six* Tenses, *three* to express *time simply*, and *three* to express both *time* and *state.* The simple tenses—that is, the *present*, *past*, and *future*, are used for the first, and express merely the *time* of the act; the other three,—the *present-perfect*, *past-perfect*, and *future-perfect*, express both the *time* and *state.*

284. The *time* is shown by the auxiliary verb *have.* Thus, in the *present-perfect* the *present* of "*have*" is used—in the *past-perfect* the *past* of have—"*had*" is used, and in the *future* perfect, the future of *have*—"*shall have*" is used. The *state* is shown by the *perfect participle.* This arises from the fact that the two participles used in conjugating the verb have only one element of tense, viz., *state;* they are always *imperfect* or *perfect*, and hence these participles may be used in a sentence which denotes any time. Thus we see how admirably the *auxiliary* and the *perfect participle*, when combined, are adapted to form the *perfect tenses.*

285. The six tenses are, therefore:—

PRESENT.—"I *walk*"—time only.

PRESENT-PERFECT.—"I have walked"—time and state.

PAST.—"I *walked*"—time only.

PAST PERFECT.—"I had walked"—time and state.

FUTURE TENSE.—"*I shall walk*"—time only.

FUTURE-PERFECT.—"I *shall have walked*"—both time and state.

286. Besides these six grammatical tenses, there are numerous other distinctions of time, which are expressed by various modifying words and phrases; as, "I will go *immediately*;"—"I will go *soon*;"—"I will go *in an hour*;"—"I will go *to-morrow*;"—"I will go *in the course of the week*."

TENSES OF THE INDICATIVE MOOD.

287. The PRESENT tense expresses what is going on at the present time; as, "I *love*"—"I am *loved*."

288. This tense is used also:—

1st. To express what is *habitual*, or *always true*; as, "He *goes* to church"—"Virtue *is* its own reward"—"Vice *produces* misery."

289. 2nd.—To express past events with force and interest, as if they were present; as, "Cæsar *leaves* Gaul, *crosses* the Rubicon, and *enters* Italy."

290. 3rd.—Sometimes, instead of the *present-perfect* tense, in speaking of authors long since dead, when reference is made to their works which still exist; as, "Moses *tells* us who were the descendants of Abraham"—"Virgil *imitates* Homer;" instead of "*has told*," "*has imitated*."

291. 4th.—In dependent clauses after such words as *when*, *before*, *if*, *as soon as*, *after*, *till*, and also after *relative pronouns*, to express the relative time of a future action, that is, of an action future at the time of speaking, but which will be present at the time referred to; as, "When he *comes*, he will be welcome"—"We shall get our letters as soon as the post *arrives*"—"He will kill every one [whom] he *meets*"—"No longer mourn for me when I *am* dead."—*Shaks.*

292. The PRESENT-PERFECT tense represents an action or event as completed at the present time, or in a period of which the present forms a part; as, "I *have sold*

my horse"—"I *have walked* six miles to-day"—"John *has been* busy this week"—"Many good books *have been published* this century."

293. The sign of the present perfect is HAVE—inflected in the common style, *have, have, has,* and in the *solemn* style, *have, hast, hath.*

294. In the use of this tense, it matters not how long ago, the act referred to, may have been performed, if it was in a period reaching to, and embracing the present, part of which still remains; as, "Many discoveries in the arts *have been made* since the days of Bacon," that is, in the period reaching from that time to the present. On the other hand, if the time of an act mentioned is past, and does not include the present, this tense can not be used however near, the time may be. Thus, we can not properly say, "I *have seen* your friend a moment ago;" but, "I *saw* your friend," &c.

295. This tense is also used:—

1st. To express an act or state continued through a period of time reaching to the present; as, "He *has studied* grammar six months"—"He *has been* absent [now] six years."

2nd. To express acts long since completed, when the reference is not to the act of finishing, but to the thing finished and still existing; as, "Cicero *has written* orations"—"Moses *has told* us many important facts in his writings"—"Of old thou *hast laid* the foundation of the earth, and the heavens are the work of thy hand." But if the thing completed does not now exist, or if the reference is to the act of finishing, and not to the present continuance of the thing finished, this tense can not be used; thus, we can not say, "Cicero *has written* poems," because no such productions now remain. Nor, "In the beginning God *has created* the heavens," because reference is only to the act of God at a certain past time, indicated by the words, "In the beginning."

3. In the same manner as the present instead of the future-perfect, to represent an action, &c., as perfect at a future time; as, "The cock shall not crow till thou *hast denied* me thrice."

4. Sometimes in effect to *deny* the present existence of that, of which the verb expresses the completion; as, "I *have been* young," meaning, this is now finished—"I am young no more."

296. The PAST tense expresses what took place in *past time;* as, "In the beginning God *created* the heavens."—"God *said,* Let

there be light."—"The ship *sailed* when the mail *arrived*."

297. The time expressed by this tense is regarded as *entirely past*, and, however, near to the present, it does not embrace it; as, "I *saw* your friend a moment ago,"—"I *wrote* yesterday."

298. In such expressions as, "I *wrote this morning*"—"*this week*"—"*this year*," &c., the reference is to a point of time now entirely past, in these yet unfinished periods.

299. This tense is used to express what was *customary* in past time; as, "She *attended* church regularly all her life."

300. The PAST-PERFECT tense represents an action or event as completed, at, or before a certain time past; as, I *had walked* six miles that day"—"John *had been* busy that week"—"The ship *had sailed* when the mail arrived"—that is, the ship sailed *before* the mail arrived.

301. The sign of the past-perfect is HAD; inflected, had, had, had in the common style.

302. The FUTURE tense expresses what will take place in *future time;* as, "I *will see* you again, and your hearts *shall rejoice*."

303. The signs of the future are SHALL, WILL.

304. The FUTURE-PERFECT tense intimates that an action or event will be completed, at, or before a certain time yet future; as, "I *shall have* got my lesson by ten o'clock"—"He *will have finished* before you are ready."

305. The signs of the future perfect are SHALL HAVE, WILL HAVE

TENSES OF THE POTENTIAL-INDICATIVE MOOD.

306. The Potential-indicative mood has, properly, *six tenses*—the *Present*, the *Pre-*

sent-perfect, the *Past*, the *Past-perfect*, the *Future*, and the *Future-perfect*.

307. The *Present* potential expresses *present liberty, power*, or *obligation.*

308. The signs of the Present are *may, can, must.*

309. The *Present-perfect*, in this mood, does not correspond in meaning, to the same tense in the indicative, but more properly expresses *present possibility, liberty, necessity*, &c., with respect to an act or state *supposed* to be past; thus, "He *may have written*," means, *It is possible* that he *wrote*, or *has written;* "He *must have* written," means, "It *must be* that he *wrote*, or *has written.*"

310. The signs of the Present-perfect potential are, *may have,—can have,—must have.*

311. The *Past* potential is very indefinite with respect to time, being used to express *liberty, ability, purpose*, or *duty*, sometimes with regard to what is past, sometimes with regard to what is present, and sometimes with regard to what is future; thus—

Past—"He *could* not *do* it *then*, for he was otherwise engaged."

Present—"I *would do* it with pleasure *now*, if I *could.*"

Future—"If he *would delay* his journey a few days, I *might* [*could, would*, or *should*,] *accompany* him."

312. The signs of the Past potential are, *might, could, would, should.*

313. The *Past-perfect* potential, also, never corresponds in time to the past-perfect indicative; that is, it never represents an act, &c., as completed at a certain past time, but expresses the *liberty, ability, purpose*, or *duty*, with respect to the act or state expressed by the verb, as now past and completed, thus, "He *could have* written," means, "He *was able to write.*"

314. The signs of the Past-perfect potential are, *might have, could have, would have, should have.*

315. The *Future* and *Future-perfect* conjugated affirmatively with "*will*" in the first person, and "*shall*" in the second and third, express a *promise, determination*, or *authority;* they are therefore properly *Potential*, and are here placed as tenses of the *Potential Mood.*

TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

316. The Subjunctive mood, in its proper form, has only the Present tense. The verb "*to be*" has the present and the past. The indicative mood used subjunctively furnishes what may be called a second form of the present subjunctive, and the only form of the other subjunctive tenses.

317. The *Present* subjunctive, in its proper form, according to present approved usage, has always a *future* reference; that is, it denotes a present uncertainty or contingency respecting a supposed *future* action or event; thus, "If he *write*," is equivalent to, "If he should write," or, "If he shall write."*

318. Uncertainty or contingency respecting a supposed *present* action or state, is expressed by the *present indicative*, used subjunctively; as, "If he writes, as well as he reads, he will succeed."

319. The PRESENT-PERFECT subjunctive is only the same tense of the indicative, used subjunctively. Such expressions as "If she *have brought* up children," &c. (1 *Tim.* v. 10,) are now obsolete.

320. The *Past* subjunctive is used in two senses—

1. It is used to express a *past* action or state as conditional or contingent; as, "If he *wrote* that letter, he deserves credit, and should be rewarded." "If he *was* at home, I did not know it.

2. It expresses a supposition with respect to something *present*, and implies a denial of the thing supposed; as, "If I had the money now, I would pay it," implying, I have it not. Used in this way, the verb "*to be*" (and, of course, the passive voice of transitive verbs) has a separate form in the singular, but not in the plural, viz., I *were*, thou *wert*, he *were*; for I *was*, thou *wast*, he *was*; thus, "If my kingdom *were* of this world, then would my servants fight," implying, it is not of this world; "O that thou wert as my brother," implying, "thou art not."

321. In this way, the Past subjunctive seems to be always used, when the conjunctive term is omitted, and the verb or auxiliary is placed before its nominative; as, "Hadst thou been here, my brother had not (would not have) died."

322. When a supposition, &c., respecting something *past*, is expressed in this way, the *Past-perfect* must be used; as, "If I *had had* the money yesterday, I would have paid it," implying, I had it not; "O that thou *hadst been* as my brother," implying, "thou wast not."

323. Though the past tense, used in this way, refers to a *present* act or state, yet, as it has the past form, it should, in parsing, be called the past tense.

TENSE OF THE IMPERATIVE MOOD.

324. The Imperative mood has only the present tense, and that, has respect to the time of the *command, exhortation,* &c. The doing of the thing commanded, must, of course, be posterior to the command requiring it.

TENSES OF THE INFINITIVE MOOD.

325. The Infinitive mood has two tenses, the *Present* and the *Perfect;* as, "To write,"—"To have written."

326. In the other moods, the time expressed by the tenses, is estimated from the time of speaking, which is always regarded as present; as, "I wrote" (that is, in a time *now* past), "I write" (that is, in time *now* present), "I shall write" (that is, in time *now* future). But the infinitive represents the action or state expressed as *present*, not, however, always at the time of speaking, but at the time indicated by the preceding verb, or some other word in the sentence; as, "He wishes to write"—*now—to-morrow—next week,* &c.; "He wished to write" *then* (viz, at the time of wishing, *now past*)—*next day—this day—to-morrow, &c.;* "He will wish to write"—*then* (viz., at the time of wishing, *now* future)—*next day,* &c. Hence the following definitions:—

327. 1st. The *Present* infinitive expresses an act or state not completed,—indefinitely, or at any time referred to, expressed or implied; as, "I wish to *write*"—"I wished *to go*"—"Apt *to teach.*"

328. The sign of the present infinitive is *to.*

329. 2d. After the verb *to be,* the present infinitive is sometimes used to express a future action or event; as, "He is *to go;*" "If he were *to go.*"

330. The *Perfect* infinitive expresses an act or state as perfect or completed, at any time referred to, expressed or implied; as "He is said *to have written*"—*already—yesterday—a year ago,* &c.

The sign of the perfect infinitive is, *to have.*

331. In the use of the infinitive, it is necessary to observe, that the *Present* must never be used in circumstances which imply a *completed* act; nor the *Perfect,* in circumstances which imply an act *not completed.* Thus, it is improper to say, "He is said *to write* yesterday," because the language leads to regard the act as finish-

ed, since it took place in past time. It should be, "*To have written* yesterday." Nor can we say, "I hoped—I desired—I intended, &c, to *have written* yesterday," because an act regarded as perfect or finished, the doing of which, of course, is past, can not be the object of *hope, desire, intention*, &c. We should say, "I hoped *to write* yesterday."

332. OBSERVATION.—The facts brought out in the above remarks respecting the Infinative, lead to the conclusion that the Infinative like the participles has but one element of tense—that the two different forms do not express so much a difference of *time* as a difference of *state*—the form called *present* being always used to express an act *not completed*, and the form called *perfect* being always used to express an act *completed*. It would be more consistent and accurate to call the one the *Infinitive Imperfect* and the other the *Infinitive Perfect*—using these names in the sense in which they are applied to the participles, not as referring at all to the *time* of the act but to the *state* of the act expressed by the verb.

333. The *Participial Mood* has two forms; one expresses an action or state as *uncompleted* or *imperfect;* as, *loving*. The other, expresses it as *completed* or *perfect;* as, *loved*.

334. The perfect participle, when not used with an *auxiliary*, and taken as part of the verb, has the construction of a verbal *adjective;* as, *viewed* in that light, I assented to the *proposal*.

335. The *imperfect* participle when not used with an *auxiliary* and taken as part of the verb, has the construction of either a *verbal ndjective*, or a *verbal noun;* as, "He, *loving* his work, performed it." "*After defeating* the army, *he* entered the city."

336. The *perfect* participle of a transitive verb, used with the auxiliary verb "*to be*," in all its moods and tenses, forms the *passive voice;* and the perfect participle of any verb, used with the simple tenses of the auxiliary "*have*," forms the perfect tenses of the active voice.

337. The imperfect participle used with the auxiliary verb "*to be*," forms the progressive of the active.

338. "Having,"—used with the perfect participle; as, *having written*, expresses both *time* and *state*, and is, properly, a perfect *tense* of the participle.

329. The form of the *infinitive* is sometimes used as a future participle; as, "In the time *to come*."

NUMBER AND PERSON.

340. Verbs have two numbers and three persons.

341. The person and number of a verb are always the same as the person and number of its subject or nominative.

342. The subject of the verb, in the first person singular, is always *I*, in the plural *we;* in the second person singular, *you* in the *common* style and *thou* in the *solemn* style; in the plural, *you* in the *common* style, and *ye* in the *solemn* style; in the third person the subject is the name of any person or thing spoken of, or a pronoun of the third person in its stead; or, it may be an infinitive mood, a clause of a sentence, or any thing of which a person can think or speak.

343. In the simple form of the present and past indicative, the second person singular of the *solemn style* ends regularly in *st* or *est*, as Thou *seest*, Thou *hearest*, Thou *sawest*, Thou *heardest;* and

the third person singular of the present, in *th* or *eth*, as He *saith*, He *loveth*.

344. In the simple form of the present indicative, the third person singular of the *common* or *familiar style*, ends in *s* or *es*; as, He *sleeps*, He *rises*.

345. The first person singular of the solemn style, and the first and second persons singular of the common style, have the same form as the three persons plural.

346. In forming the auxiliary tenses of the verb, the auxiliaries only are varied.

347. *Be* and *ought*, and the auxiliaries *shall*, *will*, *may*, *can*, *must*, are irregular in their modifications to denote person.

348. The verb *need* is often used in the third person singular of the indicative present, without the personal termination.

349. In ordinary discourse, the imperative mood has only the second person, because a *command*, *exhortation*, &c., can be addressed only to the person or persons *spoken* to.

350. In such expressions as "*Let us love*,"—"*Let him love*,"—"*Let them love*,"—phrases by which the first and the third person of the imperative in some languages are rendered—*let* is the proper imperative, in the second person, with its subject understood, and *love* the infinitive without the sign. Thus, "Let [*you*] us [*to*] love, &c.

351. This mode of expression is sometimes used, even when no definite individual is addressed; as, "Let there be light."

352. Among the poets, however, we sometimes find a *first* and a *third* person in the imperative; as, "*Confide we* in ourselves alone"—"With virtue *be we* armed."—*Hunt's Tasso*. "And *rest we* here, Matilda said."—*Scott*.

> "*Fall he* that must beneath his rival's arm,
> And *live the rest* secure from future harm."—*Pope*.
>
> "*Laugh those* that can, *weep those* that may."—*Scott*.

253. Such expressions as "Hallowed be thy name"—"Thy kingdom come"—"Be it enacted"—"So be it," &c., may be regarded either as examples of the *third* person in the imperative, or as elliptical for "*May*," or, "*Let* thy name be hallowed"—"Let it be enacted"—"Let it be so," &c.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES ON MOOD TENSE, NUMBER, AND PERSON.

What is mood? How many moods have verbs? Define the indicative. How many forms has the indicative? Define each, and give a sentence with a verb in each. Define the subjunctive,

Give an example illustrating how the subjunctive is employed. Give an example of a verb in the subjunctive without using the conjunction *if*. State in what respects the subjunctive agrees with the indicative, and in what it differs from it. Define the imperative mood. Give an example of a verb in the imperative mood. Define the infinitive mood. Give examples of the infinitive as a verbal noun. Give an example of the infinitive active used in a passive sense. How is the participial mood defined? What is tense? Explain how it is that, while there are only three natural divisions of time, there are six tenses. Explain how it is that the perfect tenses express both time and state. Use the verb *write* in the three tenses that express time only. Use the verb *know* in the three tenses that express time and state. What part of the verb *have* is used an auxiliary to form the present perfect tense—the past perfect—the future perfect? Are there any other methods of expressing distinctions of time than by the use of the tenses? Define the present tense. Give examples showing four different uses of the present tense not strictly in accordance with the definition. Define the present perfect. Take the verb "*go*" through the present perfect tense in the common and solemn styles. Give examples showing four different uses of this tense not strictly in accordance with the definition. Define the past tense. Take the verbs *see*, *lie*, *study*, through the past tense. What would you say of such expressions as "I wrote this morning." "She attended church regularly all her life?" Define the past perfect. Take the verb *walk*, *lie*, and *see* through the past perfect, first in the common and then in the solemn style. Define the future tense. What verbs are used as the auxiliaries in forming the future? Give an example. Define the future perfect and give an example. Signs of the future perfect. What are the signs of the present potential? How does the present perfect potential differ in meaning from the same tense of the indicative? *Signs* of the present perfect potential. Take the verbs *walk*, *forgive* and *have* through the present and present perfect potential. Give examples showing how indefinite the past potential is with respect to time. Give the signs of the past potential. Point out the difference in the time expressed by the past perfect, indicative and the past perfect potential. Signs of the past perfect potential. In the future and future perfect potential, how is shall and will used; and what is the meaning expressed? Give examples to show that the subjunctive has a potential form as well as the indicative. Does any tense of the subjunctive ever differ in form from the corresponding tense of the indicative? Under what circumstances does the present subjunctive differ in form from the present indicative? Give an example. In what two senses is the past subjunctive used? In which of these senses is it used when the conjunctive term is omitted? Give an ex-

ample. How is it that the imperative mood has only one tense? In relation to what does the present infinitive express *present* time? Give examples to show the relation of time expressed by the perfect infinitive. In the use of the infinitive, what is it necessary to observe? Give examples of the present and perfect infinitive used correctly and incorrectly. Would it be more correct to say the participle has two tenses or two forms? Why? When not taken with an auxiliary, as part of the verb, how is each participle used in construction? Illustrate by examples. Where does the perfect participle occur, and for what purpose is it used in the active voice? Give examples. How is the perfect participle used in forming the passive voice? Give a synopsis of the verb *see* in the passive voice. How is the progressive of the active voice formed? Give a synopsis of the verb *write* in the progressive form. Give an example of the use of the perfect tense of the participle. Give an example of what is sometimes called the future participle. What determines the person and number of the verb? What is the subject of the verb in the first and second person singular and plural? Give examples. Take the verb *arise* through the present and past in the solemn style. In the tenses formed by auxiliaries, is the verb or the auxiliary varied?

NOTE.—These questions are, purposely, close to the text, they touch, however, upon nothing but what an advanced class should know. Questions that may be thought too minute may, at first, be passed over to be taken up at a subsequent revisal.

CONJUGATION.

354. The CONJUGATION of a verb is the regular combination and arrangement of its several *voices*, *moods*, *tenses*, *numbers*, and *persons*.

355. Most verbs have two forms—the *Common* and the *Progressive*.

1. The *Common* form expresses the simple existence of the fact; as, "He *speaks*"—"She *writes*"—"They *talk*."

2. The *Progressive* form represents an action as begun, and in progress, but not completed. It is formed by annexing the *imperfect* principle to the verb "*to be*," through all its moods and tenses; as, "*I am writing*,"—"*I was writing*," &c.

356. The *Progressive Form* of the passive voice is used, when used at all, only in the present and past of the Indicative and

Subjunctive; thus, "It is being done." "It was being done." "*If it is being done.*" "If it was being done."

357. The *Common* and *Potential* forms of the *Indicative* in both the *active* and *passive voice*, may be conjugated in four different ways, namely,—*Affirmatively*, *Negatively*, *Interrogatively*, and Interrogatively and Negatively; thus:—

Affirmatively.	*Negatively.*
I love or I *do** love.	I do not love.
I am loved.	I am not loved.
Interrogatively.	*Interogat. & Negat.*
Do I love.	Do I not love.
Am I loved.	Am I not loved, &c.

In the other modes it can only be *Conjugated*, *Affirmatively* and *Negatively*.

358. The *solemn style* will constitute another form of conjugating the verbs, that is, using *thou* for the second person singular, with the terminative "*st*," and "*th*" or "*eth*" instead of the common termination "*s*" in the third singular of the present indicative; thus,

I *love*—thou *lovest*—he *loveth*. We *love*—*ye* love—they love—I have loved—thou *hast* loved.—He *hath loved*.—We have loved. *Ye* have loved.—They have loved, &c.

359. The tenses of the verb, inflicted without the auxiliary *have*, are called SIMPLE tenses; those inflected with the auxiliary *have*, placed before the perfect participle, are called COMPOUND tenses.

360. In the present and the past tense, when *st* will easily coalesce with the final consonant, it is added in the same syllable; as, *saidst*, *lovedst*. But when it will not easily coalesce, or the verb ends in a vowel sound, *est* is commonly added, and forms another syllable; as *wishest*, *teachest*, *lovest*, *goest*, *drawest*, *sayest*, *vexest*, *blessest*, &c.

361. In the present indicative, the endings of the third person singular, *s* and *es*, are subject to the rules for the plural number of nouns, as, *sits*, *reads*, *wishes*, *teaches*, *loves*, *goes*, *draws*, *carries*, *ays*, &c.

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* Do is used as an auxiliary in the *present, and did* in the *past indicative* of the *affirmative* form to render the verb emphatic; as, I *do* love—I *did* love. The other tenses, and also the progressive form and passive voice are rendered emphatic, by placing emphasis on the *auxiliary*; as, "I *have* written." "I *am* writing." "The letter *is* written."

In annexing the tense and personal endings to the verb, the Rules III., IV., and VII., for spelling words, must be carefully observed.

AUXILIARY VERBS.

362. AUXILIARY (or helping) verbs are those, by the help of which, other verbs are inflected. They are, *do*, *be*, *have*;—*shall*, *will*;—*may*, *can*, *must*. Except *have* and *be*, they are all used in the present and the past tenses, thus:—

Present.	Do,	shall,	will,	may,	can,	must.
Past.	Did,	should,	would,	might,	could,	——.

363. *Do*, and *have*, are also principal verbs. *Be* is used as an auxiliary in all its parts; *have*, in the present, past, and future.

364. In *affirmative* sentences, *shall*, in the first person, simply foretells; as, "I *shall* write." In the second and third persons, *shall* is used potentially, denoting a *promise*, *command*, or *determination*; as, "You *shall* be rewarded;"—"Thou *shalt* not kill;"—"He *shall* be punished." *Will*, in the first person, is used potentially, denoting a *promise* or *determination*; as, "I *will* go, at all hazards." In the second and third persons, *will* simply foretells; as, "You *will* soon be there;"—"He *will* expect you."

365. In *interrogative* sentences, *shall*, in the first person, may either be used potentially to inquire the will of the party addressed, as "*Shall* I bring you another book?" or it may simply ask whether a certain event will occur, as "*Shall* I arrive in time for the cars?" When *shall* is used interrogatively in the second person, it simply denotes, futurity; as, "*Shall* you be in New York next week?" *Shall*, employed interrogatively in the third person, has a potential signification, and is used to inquire the will of the party addressed; as, "*Shall* John order the carriage?" *Will*, used interrogatively in the second person, is potential in its signification; as, "*Will* you go?" *Will* may be used interrogatively in the third person, to denote mere futurity, as "*Will* the boat leave to-day?" or it may have a potential signification, in-

quiring the will of the party spoken of, as "*Will* he hazard his life for the safety of his friend?"

366. In the *subjunctive mood, shall*, in all the persons, denotes mere futurity; as, "If thy brother *shall* trespass against thee, go and tell him his fault." *Will*, on the contrary, is potential in its signification, having respect to the will of the agent or subject; as, "If he *will* strive to improve, he shall be duly rewarded."

367. The following conjugation of *shall* and *will* is inserted to give the pupil a more distinct idea of the proper use of these auxiliaries:—

SHALL *AND* WILL.

DECLARATIVE.

SIMPLE INDICATIVE.

(Expressing *simple futurity.*)

Singular.		*Plural.*	
1*st Person,*	I shall	1.	We shall
2*d Person,*	You will	2.	You will
3*d Person,*	He will	3.	They will

POTENTIAL INDICATIVE.

(Expressing a *promise, command, authority,* &c.)

Singular.		*Plural.*	
1.	I will	1.	We will
2.	You shall	2.	You shall
3.	He shall	3.	They shall

INTERROGATIVE.

SIMPLE INDICATIVE.

(*Expressing Simple futurity.*

Singular.		*Plural.*	
1.	Shall I?	1.	Shall we?
2.	Shall you?	2.	Shall you?
3.	Will he?	3.	Will they?

POTENTIAL INDICATIVE.

(Enquiring the *will* of the person addressed.)

Singular.		*Plural.*	
1.	Shall I?	1.	Shall we?
2.	Will you?	2.	Will you?
3.	Shall *or* will he?	3.	Shall *or* will they?

SIMPLE SUBJUNCTIVE.

(*Simple futurity.*)

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I shall.	1. If we shall
2. If you shall	2. If you shall
3. If he shall.	3. If they shall

POTENTIAL SUBJUNCTIVE.

(Referring to the *will* of the agent.)

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I will	1. If we will
2. If you will	2. If you will
3. If he will	3. If they will

368. *Should*, the past tense of *shall*, and *would*, the past tense of *will*, may be used with a *simple indicative* as well as a *potential* signification; thus,

Should *and* Would.

DECLARATIVE.

SIMPLE INDICATIVE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I should	1. We should
2. You would	2. You would
3. He would	3. They would

POTENTIAL INDICATIVE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I should *or* would	1. We should *or* would
2. You should *or* would	2. You should *or* would
3. He should *or* would	3. They should *or* would

INTERROGATIVE.

SIMPLE INDICATIVE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. Should I?	1. Should we?
2. Should you?	2. Should you?
3. Would he?	3. Would they?

POTENTIAL INDICATIVE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. Should *or* would I?	1. Should *or* would we?
2. Should *or* would you	2. Should *or* would you?
3 Should *or* would he?	3. Should *or* would they?

SUBJUNCTIVE.

SIMPLE SUBJUNCTIVE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I should	1. If we should
2. If you should	2. If you should
3. If he should	3. If they should

POTENTIAL SUBJUNCTIVE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I would	1. If we would
2. If you would	2. If you would
3. If he would	3. If they would

369. In the *solemn* style, *thou*, with the termination *st*, would be used instead of *you*, in the second person singular. *Will*, used as a principal verb, is conjugated regularly.

Examples of Correct use of Shall, Will, *&c.*

"Yes, my son, I *will* point out the way, and my soul *shall* guide yours in the ascent; for we *will* take our flight together."—*Goldsmith.* "The life of a solitary man *will* certainly be miserable, but not certainly devout."—*Johnson.* "The man who feels himself ignorant, *should* at least be modest."—*Ibid.* "He that *would* be superior to external influences, must first become superior to his own passions."—*Ibid.* "Rome shall perish—write that word," &c.—*Cowper.*

"By oppressions woes and pains!
By your sons in servile chains!
We *will* drain our dearest veins;
But, they *shall* be free!"—*Burns.*

Examples of Incorrect use of Shall, Will, *&c.*

"What is conceived clearly, and felt strongly, a person shall naturally express with clearness and strength." "A limb shall swing upon its hinge, or play in its socket, many hundred times in an hour, for sixty years together, without diminution of its agility."—*Paley.* "We have much to say on the subject of this life, and will often find ourselves obliged to dissent from the opinions of the biographer." *Macaulay.* "Here, then, the present introductory course of lectures shall close." "Ye shall know them by their fruit."—*E———Bible.* Now, in an enquiry into the credibility of history, the first question which we will consider is, &c.—*Arnold.*

12th EXERCISE.

1. In the following sentences, which simply foretell, and which express *determination, command,* &c.?

You shall hear me.—You will hear me.—I shall go to church soon. I will defy him. He will understand me. Thomas will

obey me.—They shall hear from us again.—Our friends will soon hear from us again.

2. Correct the errors in the following sentences, and give a reason for the correction :—

I will be a loser by that bargain.—I will be drowned and nobody shall help me.—I will be punished if I do wrong.—You shall be punished if you do not reform.—It will probably rain to-morrow.—If you shall come I shall come also.—I will be compelled to go home.—I am resolved that I shall do my duty.—I promised that if you would come home, I should pay you a visit.—I hope that I will see him.—You promised that you should write me soon.—He shall come of his own accord, if encouragement will be given.

3. In the following, tell which expressions are right, and which are wrong, and why :—

It is thought he shall come.—It will be impossible to get ready in time.—Ye will not come to me.—Ye shall have your reward.—They should not do as they ought.—We are resolved that we will do our duty.—They are resolved that they should do their duty.—I am determined that you will do your duty.—I am sure you will do your duty.

MAY, CAN, MUST, MIGHT, COULD, TO BE.

370. *May* denotes present liberty or permission; *can*, present ability; and *must*, present obligation or necessity. They are used as auxiliaries in the present potential, to express these ideas.

371. *May* sometimes denotes mere possibility; as, "He *may* write, perhaps"—"It *may* rain to-morrow."

372. *May*, before the subject of the verb, is used to express a wish or prayer; as, "*May* you be happy!"

373. *Can*, in poetry, is sometimes used by euphony for *canst*; as, "Thou trees and stones *can* teach."—*Davies.*

374. *Might* and *could* express, in past time, the same ideas generally that are expressed by *may* and *can* in the present. They are used as auxiliaries in the past potential.

375. *Might*, before the subject, is also used to express a wish; as, "*Might* it but turn out to be no worse than this!"

376. Sometimes, in the English Bible, *might* is used for *may*; as, "These things I say, that ye *might* be saved."—*John* v. 34.

377. Combined with *have*, these form a new series of compound auxiliaries; thus, *shall have* and *will have* are auxiliaries of the future-perfect indicative; *may have, can have*, and *must have*, of the present perfect potential; and *might have*, &c., of the past-perfect potential.

378. But though *may* denotes present liberty, *may have* does not denote *past liberty*, but only the present *possibility;* thus, "He *may have* written," means. It is possible that he has written. So also, *must have* does not denote past necessity, but present certainty; thus, "He *must have* written," means, There *is* no doubt he has written; it can not be otherwise.

379. The verb "*to be*" in all its moods and tenses, is used as an auxiliary in forming the passive voice; as, "I *am* loved;" "He *was* loved," &c. Also, in the progressive form of the active voice; as, "I *am* writing;" "He *was* writing, &c.

380. All these auxiliaries are sometimes used without their verb, to express, by ellipsis, the same thing as the full form of the verb, together with its adjuncts, when that is used immediately before, either in the same or in a different tense; thus, "He writes poetry as well as I *do;*" "I can write as well as he *can;*" "If you can not write, I *will;*" "He will do that as well as I *can;*" "James can get his lesson as well as ever I *could;*" "He envies me as much as I *do* him."

381. The verb *do* (not auxiliary) is sometimes used as the substitute of another verb or phrase previously used; as, "We have not yet *found them all*, nor ever *shall do*."—*Milton.* "Lucretius wrote on the nature of things in Latin, as Empedocles *had* already *done* in Greek."—*Acton.*

ANOMALOUS USAGE.

382. Several of these auxiliaries are sometimes used in a way which it is difficult to explain in a satisfactory manner, and which may justly be regarded as *anomalous.* The following are a few of these:—

383. *Had* is sometimes used in poetry for *would;* as, "I *had* rather," "I *had* as lief," for, "I *would* rather," "I *would* as lief." Sometimes it is used for *would have;* as, "My fortune *had* [would have] been his."—*Dryden.* Sometimes for *might;* as, "Some men *had* [might] as well be schoolboys, as schoolmasters."

384. *Will* is sometimes used to express what is customary at the present time; as, "He *will* sometimes sit whole hours in the shade;" "He *will* read from morning till night."

385. *Would*, in like manner, is sometimes used to express what

was customary in past time; as, "The old man *would* shake his years away;" "He'*d* sit him down."

386. *Would* is sometimes used as a principal verb, equivalent to the present of *wish* or *desire;* as, "When I make a feast, I *would* my guests should praise it—not the cooks." —"When I *would* [when I wish to] do good, evil is present with me." Thus used, the subject in the first person is sometimes omitted; as, "*Would* God it were even,"="I pray God;" "*Would* to God,"="I pray to God."

387. *Would*, with a negative, used in this way, is not merely negative of a wish or desire, but implies strong opposition or refusal; as, "How often would I have gathered thy children—but ye *would* not;" "Ye *would* none of my reproof."

388. *Should* is used in all persons to denote *present duty*, and *should have*, to denote *past duty;* as, "You *should* write;" "I *should have* written;" "The rich *should* remember the poor." It often denotes merely a supposed future event; as, "If he *should* promise, he will perform." It is sometimes used in an indefinite sense after *that;* as, "It is surprising that you *should* say so.

389. *Should* and *would* are sometimes used to express an assertion in a softened manner; thus, instead of saying, "I think him insane"—"It seems to be improper," it is milder to say, "I *should* think him insane"—"It *would* seem to be improper."

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

390. The *principal parts* of a verb are the *present tense*, the *past tense*, and the *perfect participle*. They are called the principal or radical parts, because all the other parts are formed from them. Thus:

	Present.	*Past.*	*Perfect participle.*
Regular	Love,	loved,	loved.
Irregular	Write,	wrote,	written.

INFLECTION OF THE IRREGULAR VERB "TO BE."

391. The irregular and intransitive verb

"*to be*," is used as a principal verb; and also, as an auxiliary in the passive voice, and in the progressive form of the active voice. It is thus inflected through all its moods and tenses :—

PRINCIPIAL PARTS.

Present,	*Past*,	*Perf. participle*,
Am.	Was.	Been.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1*st Pers.*	I am	1. We are
2*d Pers.*	You are (com. style) Thou art (solm. style)	2. You are (com. style) Ye are (solm. style)
3*d Pers.*	He is	3. They are

392. The *solemn* style, is given in connection with the common style all through the verb "to be." This will be sufficient to show its form in every verb.

PAST TENSE.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1.	I was	1. We were
2.	You were (com. style) Thou wast (solm. style)	2. You were (com. style) Ye were (solm. style)
3.	He was	3. They were

FUTURE TENSE.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1.	I shall be	1. We shall be
2.	You will be (com. style) Thou wilt be (solm. style)	2. You will be (com. style) Ye will be (solm. style)
3.	He will be	3. They will be

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1.	I have been	1. We have been
2.	You have been Thou hast been	2. You have been Ye have been
3.	He has been	3. They have been

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I had been	1. We had been
2. You had been / Thou hadst been	2. You had been / Ye had been
3. He had been	3. They had been

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I shall have been	1. We shall have been
2. You will have been / Thou wilt have been	2. You will have been / Ye will have been
3. He will have been	3. They will have been

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

PECULIAR FORM.*

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I be	1. If we be
2. If you be / If thou be	2. If you be / If ye be
3. If he be	3. If they be

HYPOTHETICAL FORM.†

1. If I were; or, were I	1. If we were; or, were we
2. If you were; or, were you / If thou wert; or, wert thou	2. If you were; or, were you / If ye were; or, were ye
3. If he were; or, were he	3. If they were; or, were they

393. The past subjunctive of other verbs is often employed in a similar manner; as, "I would walk out, if it *did* not *rain*;"—"If I *had* the power, I would assist you cheerfully."

394. The subjunctive mood in its ordinary form is the same, (except in the use of *shall* and *will*,) as the Indicative; as follows:

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* This form is used only when both contingency and futurity are implied; as, "If he study, he will improve."

† This form of the verb *to be* is commonly used, in the subjunctive mood, to express a supposition or hypothesis. When employed in a negative sentence, it implies an affirmation; as, "If it *were* not so, I would have told you." When used in an affirmative sentence, it implies a negation; as, "If it *were* possible, they would deceive the very elect." The time denoted by this use of the verb, is sometimes present, and sometimes indefinite.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I am	1. If we are
2. If you are / If thou art	2. If you are / If ye are
3. If he is	3. If they are

PAST TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I was	1. If we were
2. If you were / If thou wast	2. If you were / If ye were
3. If he was	3. If they were

FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I shall be	1. If we shall be
2. If you shall be / If thou shalt be	2. If you shall be / If ye shall be
3. If he shall be	3. If they shall be

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I have been	1. If we have been
2. If you have been / If thou hast been	2. If you have been / If ye have been
3. If he has been	3. If they have been

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I had been	1. If we had been
2. If you had been / If thou hadst been	2. If you had been / If ye had been
3. If he had been	3. If they had been

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I shall have been	1. If we shall have been
2. If you shall have been / If thou shalt have been	2. If you shall have been / If ye shall have been
3. If he shall have been	3. If they shall have been

395. The potential form of the subjunctive mood, is the same in all the tenses except the future, as the potential form of the indicative, *shall* being used in all the persons in the simple subjunctive,

and *will* in all the persons in the potential subjunctive. See the conjugation of *shall* and *will*.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present, To be *Perfect*, To have been

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular, Be, *or* { Be you / Be thou *Plural*, Be, *or* { Be you / Be ye

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect, Being *Perfect*, Been

Perfect tense, Having been

SYNOPSIS OF THE VERB

To Be.

INDICATIVE.

Present, I am *Present perfect*, I have been
Past, I was *Past perfect*, I had been
Future, I shall be *Future perfect*, I shall have been

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Peculiar form, If I be
Hypothetical form, If I were

Ordinary Form,

Present tense, If I am
Past tense, If I was
Future tense, If I shall be
Present perfect, If I have been
Past perfect, If I had been
Future perfect, If I shall have been

INFINITIVE.

Present, To be *Present perfect*, To have been

IMPERATIVE.

Present, Be *or* Be you or thou

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect, Being *Perfect*, Been

Having been.

CONJUGATION OF THE REGULAR VERB

TO LOVE,

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Present, Love *Past*, Loved *Perf. part.*, Loved.

ACTIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I love	1. We love
2. You love	2. You love
3. He loves	3. They love

PAST TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I loved	1. We loved
2. You loved	2. You loved
3. He loved	3. They loved

FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I shall love	1. We shall love
2. You will love	2. You will love
3. He will love	3. They will love

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I have loved	1. We have loved
2. You have lovod	2. You have loved
3. He has loved	3. They have loved

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I had loved	1. We had loved
2. You had loved	2. You had loved
3. He had loved	3. They had loved

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I shall have loved	1. We shall have loved
2. You will have loved	2. You will have loved
3. He will have loved	3. They will have loved

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

396. The ordinary form of the *Subjunctive* is the same as the *Indicative.* When both contingency and futurity are implied, the peculiar form is used thus—

PECULIAR FORM.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I love	1. If we love
2. If you love	2. If you love
3. If he love	3. If they love

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present, To love *Present-perfect*, To have loved

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular, Love, *or* Love you *Plural*, Love, *or* Love you

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect, Loving *Perfect*, Loved.

Perfect tense, Having loved

SYNOPSIS OF THE VERB.

"To Love."

INDICATIVE

Present, I love	*Present perfect*, I have loved
Past, I loved	*Past perfect*, I had loved
Future, I shall love	*Future perfect* I shall have loved

INFINITIVE.

Present, To love *Perfect*, To have loved

IMPERATIVE.

Present, Love, *or* love you

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect, Loving *Perfect*, Loved

Perfect tense, Having loved

397. In the *solemn style*, the Verb would take *thou* instead of you in the second person singular with the termination "*st*" for the verb, and "*eth*" for the third singular termination of the verb; and *ye* instead of you for the second plural; thus:—I love; Thou *lovest;* He *loveth;* We love; *Ye* love; They love, &c.

398. The passive voice is formed by con-

jugating the verb *to be* through all its moods and tenses, numbers and persons, with the *perfect participle* of a transitive verb; thus:—

SYNOPSIS OF THE VERB

"To Love."

PASSIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense, I am loved	*Present Perfect*, I have been loved, &c.
Past, I was loved, &c.	*Past Perfect*, I had been loved, &c.
Future, I shall be loved, &c.	*Future Perfect*, I shall have been loved, &c.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present, To be loved	*Present Perfect*, To have been loved

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular, Be loved; or, Be you loved
Plural, Be loved; or, Be you loved

PARTICIPLES.

Perfect, Loved.	*Perfect Tense*, Having been loved.

PROGRESSIVE FORM OF THE VERB.

399. Conjugating the verb *to be* through all its moods, tenses, numbers and persons, with the *Imperfect Participle*, constitutes the *Progressive Form* of the verb; thus:—

Present, I am writing, &c.	*Present Perfect*, I have been writing, &c.
Past, I was writing, &c.	*Past Perfect*, I had been writing, &c.
Future, I shall be writing	*Future Perfect*, I shall have been writing.

Imperfect Participle, Being loved.

400. *Synopsis of the Irregular Verb*
"TO SEE."

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Present,	*Past,*	*Perfect Participle,*
See.	Saw.	Seen.

INDICATIVE.

Present, I see	*Present Perfect,* I have seen
Past, I saw	*Past Perfect,* I had seen
Future, I shall see	*Future Perfect,* I shall have seen

INFINITIVE.

Present, To see *Present Perfect,* To have seen

IMPERATIVE.

Present, See; *or,* See thou *or* you

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect, Seeing. *Perfect,* Seen.

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405. *Synopsis of the Irregular Verb*
"TO HEAR."

EMPHATIC FORM.

INDICATIVE.

Present, I do hear *Past,* I did hear

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Present, If I do hear *Past,* If I did hear

IMPERATIVE.

Present, Do hear; *or,* Do thou *or* you hear

NOTE—*Do,* as a principal verb, is conjugated like other irregular verbs.

INTERROGATIVE FORM.

402. In interrogative sentences, when the verb has no auxiliary, the nominative is placed after the verb; when one auxiliary is used, the nominative is placed between the auxiliary and the principal verb; and when more auxiliaries than one are employed, the nominative is usually placed after the first.

TO HAVE

INTERROGATIVELY.

INDICATIVE.

Pres. Have I; or, Do I have?	*Pres. perf.* Have I had?
Past, Had I; or, Did I have?	*Past perf.* Had I had?
Fut. Shall I have?	*Fut. perf.* Shall I have had?

NEGATIVE FORM.

404. A verb is conjugated negatively by introducing the negative particle *not* in connection with the auxiliary *do;* as, I know*not*, or, I do not know; I did *not* know; I shall *not* know; I have *not* known; I had *not* known; I shall *not* have known, &c.

405. Care must be taken not to confound the parts of one verb with the parts of another. There is danger of this especially with some verbs which are similar in sound and sense. The intransitive verb *lie,* to recline, is sometimes confounded with the transitive verb *lay;* and the intransitive verb *sit* with the transitive verb *set.* The parts are correctly used, thus :—

THE INTRANSITIVE, LIE.	THE TRANSITIVE, LAY.
Principal parts, *Lie, lay, lain.*	Principal parts, *Lay, laid, laid.*
Present, I *lie*	I *lay*
Past, I *lay*	I *laid*
Future, I shall *lie*	I shall *lay*
Pres. perf. I have *lain*	I have *laid*
Past perf. I had *lain*	I had *laid*
Fut. perf. I shall have *lain*	I shall have *laid*

THE INTRANSITIVE, SIT.	THE TRANSITIVE, SET.
Principal parts, *Sit, sat, sat.*	Principal parts, *Set, set, set.*
Present, I *sit*	*Present,* I *set*
Past, I *sat*	*Past,* I *set*
Future, I shall *sit*	*Future,* I shall *set*
Pres. perf. I have *sat*	*Pres. perf.* I have *set*
Past perf. I had *sat*	*Past perf.* I had *set*
Fut. perf. I shall have *sat*	*Fut. perf.* I shall have *set*

406. It is quite unnecessary to occupy more space in conjugating verbs. If the conjugation of one verb is understood, the conjugation of every verb is understood. The only verb really *irregular* in its conjugation is the verb *to be.* The other verbs called *irregular* are only irregular in not forming their *past tense* and *perfect participle* regularly by adding *ed* to the present. What requires to be *specially* observed in conjugating and using *irregular verbs,* is, that the *form* for the *past tense must be used only* in the *past tense of the Indicative* and *Subjunctive of the Active Voice;* and the *form* for the PERFECT PARTICIPLE must be used with the verb *to be,* in forming every *part* of the *Passive Voice,* and with

the proper auxiliaries in forming all PERFECT TENSES in every mood of the *Active Voice*, and nowhere else.

DEFECTIVE VERBS.

407. A DEFECTIVE Verb is one in which some of the parts are wanting. The following list comprises the most important. They are irregular, and chiefly auxiliary:—

Present.	*Past.*	*Present.*	*Past.*
Can	could.	Shall	should.
May	might.	Will	would.
Must	——	Wis	wist.
Ought	——	Wit, }	wot.
Quoth	quoth	Wot, }	

Imperative—Beware.

408. *Ought*, originally the past tense of *owe*, is now used to signify present duty; and *must* to denote present obligation or necessity. When they refer to past time, a change is made in the infinitive with which they are joined; thus, *Present*—"These things ye ought *to do*;" *Past*—"These things ye ought to have done."

409. *Will*, as an auxiliary, has *wilt*, and *shall* has *shalt*, in the second person singular, *solemn style*. They are both without inflection in the third person. *Will*, as a principal verb, is regular.

410. *Wis*, *wist*, which signifies *to know*, *to imagine*, is now obsolete. *Wit*, of the same meaning and origin, is now used only in the infinitive, in the phrase, "*to wit*," that is, "namely."

411. *Beware* (properly *be* and *ware*, or *wary*) is now used only in the imperative, and sometimes after an auxiliary; as, "*Beware* of him."—"We should *beware*."

412. *Quoth*, to *say*, to *speak*, is used only in ludicrous language; its nominative always comes after the verb, and it has no variation for person, number, or tense; as, "*Quoth he*,"—"*Quoth they*," &c.

DIAGRAM *intended as a Form to be filled out by the Class, and to be used in conducting Examinations on the* VERB.

	TENSES.	VERB.			
		ACTIVE VOICE.		PASSIVE VOICE.	
		ORDINARY FORM. Affirmatively, Negatively, Interrogat'ly, Interrog'ly and Negatively, Emphatically.	PROGRESSIVE FORM. Affirmatively, Negatively, Interrogat'ly, Interrogatively and Negatively.	ORDINARY FORM. Affirmatively, Negatively, Interrogat'ly, Interrogatively and Negatively.	PROGRESSIVE FORM.* Affirmatively, Negatively, Interrogat'ly, Interrogatively and Negatively.
INDICATIVE MOOD. Simple Form.	*Present*				
	Past				
	Future				
	Present Perfect				
	Past Perfect				
	Future Perfect				
POTEN'L FORM.	*Present*				
	Past				
	Future				
	Present Perfect				
	Past Perfect				
	Future Perfect				

* The Progressive of the Passive can be used only in the case of a few Verbs, and then only in the Present and Past of the Simple Indicative; as, "The house *is being built.*" "The house *was being built.*"

Indicative Form.	[Peculiar Form]				18TH EXERCISE.
	Present				Take verbs through
	Past				all the moods and
	Future				tenses, persons and
	Present Perfect				numbers of each form
	Past Perfect				in the Active and
	Future Perfect				Passive, 1st, Affirm-
Subjunctive Mood. Potent Form.					atively; 2nd, Nega-
	Present				tively; 3rd, Interrog-
	Past				atively; 4th, Inter-
	Future				rogatively and Nega-
	Present Perfect				tively; 5th, Emphati-
	Past Perfect				cally. Take verbs
	Future Perfect				through each of the
Imper. Mood.	*Present*				tenses in the indica-
Infinitive Mood.	*Present*				tive, from left to right
	Perfect				in each of the twelve
Participial Mood.	*Imperfect*				ways, thus: I know,
	Perfect				or I *do* know, I do
					not know, Do I know?
					Do I not know?—
					I am knowing, I am
					not knowing, Am
					I knowing, Am I
					not knowing?—I am
					known, I am not
					known, Am I known?

Am I not known?—I am being known, I am not being known, Am I being known? Am I not being known? Take verbs through all the persons and numbers of the Indicative future,—of the Potential Future,—of the Subjunctive Future,—of the Potential Subjunctive Future. Give a synopsis of a Verb through the Affirmative, ordinary form, active voice,—passive voice.—Through the interrogative, and progressive forms, active voice,—passive voice. Give promptly any person, number, mood or tense of any voice or form that may be called for. Prepare a Diagram similar to this, filling up such parts as may be directed.

This exercise on the Diagram is given merely to indicate how it is intended to be used.

IMPERSONAL VERBS.

413. *Impersonal* verbs are those which assert the existence of some action or state, but refer it to no particular subject. They are always in the third person singular, and in English are preceded by the pronoun *it;* as, "It *rains*"—"It *hails*"—"It *behooves*," &c.

414. To this class of words belong the expressions, *methinks, methought; meseems, meseemed;* sometimes used for, "*It seems to me*"—"*It appears to me*," &c.

415. The pronoun *it* preceding the impersonal verb as its subject, is the substitute for some unknown and general, or well known cause, the action of which is expressed by the verb, but which can not, or need not, itself be named.

SYNTAX OF THE VERB.

RULE XII. A verb must agree with its nominative in person and number; as, I *am;* they *are*.

Observe the following special applications of this rule:

1st. A singular noun used in a plural sense has a verb in the plural; as, "Ten sail are in sight."

2nd. Two or more nouns in the singular, taken together, require the verb in the plural; as, "James and John are here."

3rd. Two or more nouns in the singular taken separately require the verb in the singular; as, "James or John *attends*."

4th. When two or more nominatives taken separately, are of different persons, the persons should be arranged in the order of second, third, first, and the verb should agree with the one next it; as, "Either you, or he, or *I am* in the wrong.

NOTE.—It is often better, instead of following this rule, to put the verb with the first nominative, and repeat it with the second, or to change the form of the sentence altogether; as, "James *is* in the wrong; or, one of us *is* in the wrong."

5. A collective noun expressing *many*, as one whole, has a verb in the singular; as, "The company was large." But when the collective noun expresses many, as individuals, the verb must be plural; as, "My people do not consider."

ORDER OF PARSING THE VERB.

Reg. or Irreg. (Parts, if Irreg.) Trans. or Intrans.

Person.	Number.	Tense.	Mood.	Voice, if passive
1st.	Sing.	Present.	Indic.	
2nd.		Past.		
		Future.	Sub.	
		Pres-perf.		
3rd.	Plu.	Past-perf.		Rule XII. or Special Rule.
		Fut-perf.	Imper.	

EXAMPLE.—"Peter went out and wept bitterly.

Went—is an irregular verb, from *go, went, gone*, third, singular, past, indicative, agreeing with its nominative Peter. RULE XII.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS, AND EXERCISES.

ON THE CONJUGATION OF THE VERB.

How is a verb conjugated in the progressive form? In what tenses only, is the progressive form of the passive voice used? Conjugate the verb *teach* through the progressive form active and passive voice. Give the first person singular, present and past, ordinary and progressive forms of the indicative—affirmatively emphatically—negatively—interrogatively—and, interrogative and negatively of the verb *hear*. Take it through all the persons numbers and forms of the *future*, simple and potential in the same way. Do the same in the passive with the verb *forget*. Take the verb *arise* through all the persons and numbers of the present, past, and future indicative, solemn style. Take it through the same tenses, &c., solemn style, interrogatively. Mention the auxiliary verbs. For what purposes is *Do* used as an auxiliary verb? Give examples. For what purpose is *Be* used as an auxiliary? Give examples. In what person is *shall* used as an

auxiliary in simple indicative, and what does it express? Give an example. In what person is *shall* used in the potential? Give an example. To express what, is *shall* used interrogatively in the simple, and in the potential indicative? What difference of meaning is there between the future of the simple indicative, and the potential indicative? Conjugate *shall* and *will*, so as to express this difference of meaning in each. What does the future of the simple subjunctive and potential subjunctive each respectively express? Conjugate *shall* and *will* in each, so as to express this difference. How are *shall* and *will* used in the simple indicative interrogative and in the potential indicative interrogative? Conjugate *shall* and *will* interrogatively so as to express this difference of meaning. Select or write sentences to illustrate the correct and incorrect use of *shall* and *will*, to be presented at the next lesson. What ideas and what time does *may* express? Give an example. What ideas and what time does *might* express? Give an example. What auxiliaries are used to form the present perfect and the past perfect of the potential? Give examples. Give examples illustrating an anomalous use of *had*, *will*, *would* and *should*. What are the principal parts of a verb? Give the principal parts of the verbs *bear* to carry, and *bear* to bring forth—*lie*—*lay*—*break*—*dare* to venture, and *dare* to challenge, *drink*—*get*—*lade*—*shine*—*sow* to scatter—*sing*—*swell*—*swim*—*thrive*—*wet*—*work*—and *wring*. Conjugate the verb *to be*, in the common style, through all its forms in full. Conjugate it through the present, present perfect, and future, *solemn style*. Give the subjunctive and hypothetical forms of the verb *to be?* For what purpose is each of them used? Give sentences illustrating the proper and improper use of these forms. With the Diagram before you, conjugate in any of the different ways indicated, such verbs as may be called for. Repeat the rule of syntax for the verb. Repeat the five special applications of this rule. Give an example of the application of each. Repeat the order of parsing the verb.

14TH EXERCISE.

THE VERB.

1. Parse the verbs in the following sentences according to the form and example given above:—

Peter went out and wept bitterly. They are not here now. She is coming to-morrow. Do you not know that I could have had you punished? Are you taking James with you? The goods were sold this morning. I will buy some if he can guarantee their quality. The matter is being investigated. Year after year it steals till all are fled. That might have occurred

when knowledge (was) falsely called wisdom. If he make the effort he will succeed. I felt so fatigued that I lay down on the grass. I do remember the circumstance. Britannia rules the waves. Were I in your position the matter should be enquired into. The school closes at three o'clock. One came, methought, and whispered in my ear. We were delayed by the storm. I may have been stunned by the fall. This medicine tastes very bitter. Give me a pound of almonds. The last sentence reads rather awkwardly. You should wait till you hear whether he has been offered the situation. My parents never cost me a blush and I hope I shall never cost them a tear. Are not the clouds moving towords the west? If I may be so bold, how came you to know that?

2. When the sense will allow it, turn the verbs, in the active voice into the passive and into the progressive, and turn those in the passive and progressive into the active.

3. Turn the affirmative forms into negative and interrogative.

4. Form sentences using the participles and infinitives of the first twelve verbs as verbal nouns and verbal adjectives.

5. Which of the verbs are used in a sense which is properly neither active nor passive.

6. Form sentences in which the hypothetical form of the verb *to be* shall be used correctly, and the subjunctive peculiar form of the verb *go*.

7. Give a synopsis, in any form, according to the diagram, of the verbs *go*, *know* and *see*, and such others as may be called for.

8. Give sentences with verbs having an active form and passive meaning.

9. Give sentences with verbs having a passive form and active meaning.

10 Parse each word in full, according to the form given, applying the proper Rule of Syntax to each.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

406. An IRREGULAR verb is one that does not form its past tense in the indicative active, and its perfect participle, by adding *ed* to the present.

NOTE.—Words ending in *e* of course drop the final *e*, according to VII rule of spelling.

*** The following list comprises nearly all the irregular verbs in the language. Those conjugated regularly, as well as irregularly, are marked with an R. Those in *italics* are obsolete, or obsolescent:—

Present.	*Past.*	*Perfect participle.*
Abide	abode	abode
Am	was	been
Arise	arose	arisen
Awake	awoke, R.	awaked
Bake	baked	baked, *baken*
Bear, *to bring forth*	bore, *bare*	born
Bear, *to carry*	bore, bare	borne
Beat	beat	beaten, beat
Begin	began	begun
Bend	bent, R.	bent, R.
Bereave	bereft, R.	bereft, R.
Beseech	besought	besought
Bid	bid, bade	bidden, bid
Bind, *un-*	bound	bound
Bite	bit	bitten, bit
Bleed	bled	bled
Blow	blew	blown
Break	broke, *brake*	broken, *broke*
Breed	bred	bred
Bring	brought	brought
Build, *re-*	built, R.	built, R.
Burn	burnt, R.	burnt, R.
Burst	burst	burst
Buy	bought	bought
Cast	cast	cast
Catch	caught, R.	caught, R.
Chide	chid	chidden, chid
Choose	chose	chosen
Cleave, *to adhere*	cleaved, *clave*	cleaved
Cleave, *to split*	cleft, *clove*	cleft, R. cloven

Present.	*Past.*	*Perfect participle.*
Cling	clung	clung
Clothe	clad, R.	clad, R.
Come, *be-*	came	come
Cost	cost	cost
Creep	crept	crept
Crow	crew, R.	crowed
Cut	cut	cut
Dare, *to venture*	durst	dared
Dare, *to challenge*, R.	dared	dared
Deal	dealt	dealt, R.
Dig	dug, R.	dug, R.
Do, *mis-un-do*	did	done
Draw	drew	drawn
Dream	dreamt	dreamt, R.
Drink	drank	drank, drunk
Drive	drove	driven
Dwell	dwelt, R.	dwelt, R.
Eat	eat, ate	eaten
Fall, *be-*	fell	fallen
Feed	fed	fed
Feel	felt	felt
Fight	fought	fought
Find	found	found
Flee	fled	fled
Fling	flung	flung
Fly	flew	flown
Forbear	forebore	forborne
Forget	forgot	forgotten, forgot
Forsake	forsook	forsaken
Freeze	froze	frozen
Get, *be-for-*	got, gat	gotten, got
Gild	gilt, R.	gilt, R.
Gird, *be-en-*	girt, R.	girt, R.
Give, *for-mis-*	gave	given
Go, *under-*	went	gone

Present.	*Past.*	*Perfect participle.*
Grave, *en*-R.	graved	graven, graved
Grind	ground	ground
Grow	grew	grown
Hang	hung	hung*
Have	had	had
Hear	heard	heard
Heave	hove, R.	hoven, R.
Hew	hewed	hewn, R.
Hide	hid	hidden, hid
Hit	hit	hit
Hold, *be-with-*	held	held, *holden*
Hurt	hurt	hurt
Keep	kept	kept
Kneel	knelt, R.	knelt, R.
Knit	knit, R.	knit, knitted
Know	knew	known
Lade, *to load*†	laded	laden
Lay	laid	laid
Lead, *mis-*	led	led
Leave	left	left
Lend	lent	lent
Let	let	let
Lie, *to recline*	lay	lain, *lien*
Light	lighted, lit	lighted, lit
Lose	lost	lost
Make	made	made
Mean	meant	meant
Meet	met	met
Mow	mowed	mown, R.
Pay, *re-*	paid	paid
Pen, *to enclose*	pent, R.	pent, R.
Put	put	put
Quit	quit, R.	quit, R.

* *Hang*, to take away life by hanging, is regular, as, "The robber was *hanged*, but the gown was *hung* up."

†Lade, *to dip*, is regular.

Present.	*Past.*	*Perfect participle.*
Read	read*	read*
Rend	rent	rent
Rid	rid	rid
Ride	rode, *rid*	ridden, *rid*
Ring	rang, rung	rung
Rise, *a-*	rose	risen
Rive	rived	riven, R.
Run	ran, *run*	run
Saw	sawed	sawn, R.
Say	said	said
See	saw	seen
Seek	sought	sought
Seethe	seethed, sod	seethed, sodden
Sell	sold	sold
Send	sent	sent
Set, *be-*	set	set
Shake	shook	shaken
Shape, *mis-*	shaped	shapen, R.
Shave	shaved	shaven, R.
Shear	sheared	shorn
Shed	shed	shed
Shine	shone, R.	shone, R.
Shoe	shod	shod
Shoot	shot	shot
Show	showed	shown, R.
Shrink	shrunk, *shrank*	shrunk
Shred	shred	shred
Shut	shut	shut
Sing	sang, sung	sung
Sink	sunk, *sank*	sunk
Sit	sat	sat
Slay	slew	slain
Sleep	slept	slept
Slide	slid	slidden, slid

* Pronounced *red.*

Present.	*Past.*	*Perfect participle.*
Sling	slung, slang	slung
Slink	slunk	slunk
Slit	slit	slit, slitted
Smite	smote	smitten
Sow, *to scatter*	sowed	sown, R.
Speak *be-*	spoke, *spake*	spoken
Speed	sped	sped
Spell	spelt, R.	spelt, R.
Spend, *mis-*	spent	spent
Spill	spilt, R.	spilt, R.
Spin	spun, *span*	spun
Spit, *be-*	spit, *spat*	spit
Split	split	split
Spread, *be-*	spread	spread
Spring	sprang, sprung	sprung
Stand, *with*, &c.	stood	stood
Steal	stole	stolen
Stick	stuck	stuck
Sting	stung	stung
Stink	stunk *or* stank	stunk
Stride, *be-*	strode, strid	stridden, strid
Strike	struck	struck, *stricken*
String	strung	strung
Strive	strove	striven
Strew, * *be-*	strewed	strewed, strewn
Strow, *be-*	strowed	strowed, strown
Swear	swore, *sware*	sworn
Sweat	sweat, R.	sweat, R.
Sweep	swept	swept
Swell	swelled	swollen, R.
Swim	swam *or swum*	swum
Swing	swung	swung
Take, *be-* &c.	took	taken

* *Strew* and *shew* are now giving way to *strow* and *show*, as they are pronounced.

Present.	*Past.*	*Perfect participle.*
Teach, *mis- re-*	taught	taught
Tear	tore, *tare*	torn
Tell	told	told
Think, *be-*	thought	thought
Thrive	thrived, *throve*	thriven, R.
Throw	threw	thrown
Thrust	thrust	thrust
Tread	trod	trodden, trod
Wax	waxed	waxen, R.
Wear	wore	worn
Weave	wove	woven
Weep	wept	wept
Wet	wet, R.	wet, R.
Whet	whet, R.	whet, R.
Win	won	won
Wind	wound, R.	wound
Work	wrought, R.	wrought, R.
Wring	wrung, R.	wrung
Write	wrote	written

ADVERBS.

407. An ADVERB is a word used to modify the sense of a *verb*, an *adjective*, or another *adverb;* as, "Ann speaks *distinctly;* she is *remarkably* diligent, and reads *very correctly*."

408. An adverb is generally equivalent to a modifying phrase, or adjunct to the word to which it is joined. Thus in the preceding example, "*distinctly*" means, *in a distinct manner;* "*remarkably*," *in a remarkable degree.* So, "*now*" means *at this time;* "*then*," *at that time*, &c. These adverbial *phrases* may be further expanded into *adverbial sentences;* as, "The boy studies *diligently*,"—*in a diligent manner—as a diligent boy should study.*

409. Our notions of *things* are expressed by nouns, and our notions of the *qualities* or *attributes* of things are expressed by *adjectives* and *verbs*, hence, just as we use an *adjective* to qualify a noun, so

we use an *adverb* to qualify any word expressing an attribute; and as *adverbs* are, themselves, attributes of adjectives and verbs, they may be qualified by other adverbs.

410. The subject of the verb is the principal noun in every sentence, and the principal attribute is contained in the predicate. The *principal* use of the adverb is to modify the whole sentence through the principal attribute, and its secondary or subordinate use is to qualify other attributes in the sentence.

411. On the same principle that an adverb modifies another adverb, it sometimes also modifies an adjunct, a phrase, or a sentence; as, "I met your brother FAR *from home*"—"He will be here SOON *after mid day*"—"We shall go IMMEDIATELY *after the mail arrives.*"

412. A few adverbs are sometimes used as adjuncts of nouns and pronouns; as, I *only* [that is, *I*, and no one else] am escaped alone to tell thee.—"The women *also* were present," that is, the women *as well as the others—in addition to the others.*

CLASSIFICATION OF ADVERBS.

413. Adverbs, according to the nature of the modifications which they denote, may be divided into various classes; viz., Adverbs of *Time, Place, Quality, Quantity, Mode.*

414. *Adverbs of Time* are such as answer to the question *When?*

They may be subdivided into *Point of Time;* as, *Now, then, Duration of time;* as, *ever, until. Repetition of time;* as, *Often, seldom, frequently,* &c.

415. Adverbs of place are those which answer to the questions *Where, whither or whence?*

Where? or, *rest in a place;* as, *there, here, within. Whither?* or, *motion towards a place;* as, *unto, hence, hither, &c. Whence?* or *motion from a place;* as, *thence, thither, forth, &c.*

416. *Adverbs of Quality*, are those which answer to the question *How?* As, *so, very, greatly*, &c.

417. *Adverbs of Quantity* are those which answer the questions *How much?* and, *How*

often? &c.; As, *much, little, scarcely, once,* &c.

418. *Adverbs of Mode* are those which from the nature of the idea they express, can only be used in connection with verbs;

Such as, Adverbs of *Affirmation;* as, *yes, aye, indeed.* Of *Negation;* as, *nay, not, nowise.* Of *Doubt;* as, *perhaps, possibly, perchance,* &c.

419. Adverbs used in asking questions may be called adverbs of Interrogation; as, *How, why, &c.*

420. *There,* commonly used as an adverb of place, is often used as an *introductory expletive* to the verbs *to be, to come, to appear,* and some others, when the subject, in declaratory sentences, follows the verb; as, "There is no doubt of the fact"—"There came to the beach a poor exile of Erin"—"There appears to be a mistake somewhere." Sometimes, when the subject goes before it is placed between the subject and the verb; as, "A mistake there is." In all such cases, *there* is a mere expletive. It adds nothing to the sense, but still, it serves to vary the form of expression, and to soften the abruptness which would otherwise exist. This will appear by omitting it in any of the preceding examples.

421. *Then*—does not always refer to time, but it is used to indicate a certain circumstance, or a case supposed; as, "If you will go, *then* [that is, in that case] say so.

422. "*Now,*" is sometimes used without reference to time, merely to indicate the transition from one sentence to another; as, "Not this man, but Barabbas. *Now* Barabbas was a robber."

CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS.

423. A *conjunctive adverb* is one used to connect two clauses while it modifies a word, usually the verb, in each; as, "*When* Crusoe saw the savages, he became greatly alarmed." "Show me the place *where* he lives." The words most commonly used as *conjunctive adverbs,* are—*when, while, where, till, as, whether, before, since, &c.*

424. The only *Inflection* which the adverb undergoes, and that in comparatively few cases, is to distinguish degrees of comparison; as, I run *fast;* he runs *faster;* she runs *fastest.*

425. In most instances, adverbs are compared by *more* and *most;* as, *more* beautifully; *most* beautifully.

426. *Table of Adverbs.*

Adverbs express	1. Time,	Point of time,	Then.
		Duration of Time,	Ever.
		Repetition,	Often.
	2. Place,	Rest in,	Here.
		Motion to or from,	Away.
	3. Quality,	Manner,	So.
		Degree,	Very.
	4. Quantity,	Measure,	Half.
		Number and Order	Once.
	5. Mood,	Affirmation,	Yes.
		Negation,	No.
		Probability or Doubt,	Perhaps.

SYNTAX OF THE ADVERB.

Rule XIII.—Adverbs modify *verbs*, adjectives, or adverbs; as, He speaks *distinctly;* he is *remarkably* diligent, and reads *very* correctly.

ORDER OF PARSING THE ADVERB.

Adverb of	Time, Place, Number, Quantity, Manner, Mode, Interrog.	Modifying the	Verb
			Adjective
			Adverb
			Rule XII.

Example—"I have *not* seen him *lately*."

Not.—Adverb of mode, modifying the verb *seen;* according to Rule, "Adverbs modify," &c.

Lately.—Adverb of time modifying the verb *seen;* according to Rule, &c.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES.

ADVERB.

What is an adverb? Give examples of the use of adverbs. To what is an adverb generally equivalent? Give examples. Explain how it is that adverbs come to modify these three parts of speech. In what part of a sentence is the principal attribute found? What is the principal and secondary use of the adverb? Illustrate this by an example. Give examples to show that adverbs some-

times modify phrases and sentences. Give examples of an anomalous use of adverbs. Give examples to show how adverbs may be expanded into adverbial phrases, and into adverbial sentences. Into what general classes are adverbs divided? Into what classes are those of time subdivided? Repeat those of each class. Into what classes are those of place subdivided? Repeat those of each class. Into what classes are those of number subdivided? Repeat those of each class. Those of quantity? Repeat them. Those of manner? Repeat them. Repeat those of mode. Repeat those of interrogation. Illustrate, by examples, the two uses of the adverb *there*. Give examples of *then* and *now*, not used with reference to time. What are conjunctive adverbs? Give examples to illustrate how they are used. How are adverbs compared? Repeat the rule of syntax for the adverb. Repeat the order of parsing the adverb.

15TH EXERCISE.

THE ADVERB.

1. Parse the adverbs in the following sentences, according to the form and example given:—

I have not seen him lately. I have not called upon him yet. They have almost all their wants supplied without labor. He looked quite ill. The weather was exceedingly stormy below. They often call to see me. The news arrived early in the morning. Why, my friend! are you here? We shall probably return to-morrow. Perhaps you will return early. We are far from the city. You will first let me know. I hear much of your success. Twice two is four. You may possibly be mistaken. I will return when you send for me. He discovered the mistake whilst on his way home. He was preparing to leave as I entered. I have been here since morning. I believe I have seen you as often as was necessary. I went wherever you wished. Whither I go, ye cannot come. Return from whence you came. He talks as if he meant it. The more you talk the worse you make it.

2. Go over this exercise again, and parse the Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, and Verbs, in full, according to the prescribed form.

PREPOSITIONS.

427. A PREPOSITION is a word which

shows the relation of a noun or pronoun depending upon it, to some other word in the sentence; as, "The *love* OF *money*."—"*Come* TO *me*."

427. The preposition most frequently shows the relation of a noun to an action; as, "I *travelled on* the *cars*." It is used sometimes to indicate the relation of its noun to some quality; as, "The climate is *disagreeable in winter*." A few prepositions are occasionally used to indicate the relation of one *noun* to *another*; as, "The *habits* of the *people*."

428. Instead of a noun, a preposition may be followed by any word or combination of words supplying the place of a noun; as, "Honored for *having done his duty*."—"The crime of *being a young man*."

429. The same word not unfrequently has several adjuncts; as, "He WENT *from Boston, by railroad, to New York, in eight hours*." Also, the noun or pronoun in the adjunct, may be limited by one or more adjuncts—the whole forming a compound adjunct; as, "It is CONSISTENT *with the character of a man of honor*." Here, "*of honor*" is the adjunct of *man*; "*of a man of honor*" is a compound adjunct of *character*; and the whole, "*with the character of a man of honor*," is a compound adjunct of *consistent*.

430. In the natural order of a sentence, the adjunct follows its principal; as, "He withdrew *after supper*." It is often convenient, however, to arrange the adjunct first; as, "*After supper*, he withdrew with his friend who had called for him." Here, the same sense cannot so well be given by placing the adjunct, "after supper," anywhere else in the sentence.

431. *Concerning*, *excepting*, *regarding*, *respecting*, and *touching*, were originally present participles active, of transitive verbs, and as such, required an objective case after them. They may frequently be so construed still. *During* may be regarded as originally the present participle active, of an intransitive verb, having the noun or pronoun in the nominative case absolute; thus, "During life," means *life during*, or *while life remains*. *Notwithstanding*, a compound of *not*, and the imperfect participle *withstanding*, may be explained in the same way. When used, however, as prepositions, the word following must be regarded as in the objective case.

432. *Except* and *save* were originally imperatives. *Out of* may be regarded either as two words—an adverb and preposition—or as one word, forming a sort of compound preposition. Of this character are the following: *From between*, *from beyond*, *from within*, *from without*, *over against*, and the like. *Off* is, for the

most part, an adverb, and means *at a distance;* as "Far *off*." With a noun or pronoun following it, *off* is a preposition, and means *not on, from,* &c.; as, "*Off* the table."

433. The word *a* in the sense of *at, in, on, to, of,* &c., has the force of a preposition in such expressions as *a reading, a running, a going, a hunting,* &c., and may be parsed as such. The same word is used as a prefix in such words as *aboard, ashore, asleep, abed, afloat,* &c

434. When a preposition has not an object, it becomes an *adverb;* as, "He rides *about*." But in such phrases as *cast up, hold out, fall on,* &c., *up, out, on,* should be considered as parts of the verbs to which they are joined, rather than as prepositions or adverbs.

CLASSIFICATION OF PREPOSITIONS.

435. Prepositions may be classed according to the various relations expressed by them as follows:—

436. PLACE—Rest in a place; as, *in, on, at.* DIRECTION—Motion to or from; as, *to, from, towards,* &c. TIME—Time only; as, *till, since.*—Time as well as place; as, *at, before.* AGENT AND INSTRUMENT—as, *by, with, by means-of.* CAUSE OR MOTIVE—as, *for, on-account-of.* VARIOUS RELATIONS—such as, *Separation;* as, *without. Inclination;* as, *for Aversion;* as, *against. Substitution;* as, *instead of. Possession;* as, *of. Reference;* as, *touching. Opposition;* as, *against. Exclusion;* as, *except, but,* &c.

437. Intellectual relations are conceived of as physical, and are expressed by prepositions denoting physical relations. They are exhibited to others as they strike our own minds; as, for instance, to do it *from pity.* "To *rule over* a country."—"To rely *on* a *promise.*" In some such cases, the preposition seems to be used to render more emphatic the meaning of a verb which expresses the same relation as the preposition expresses physically; as, "To *consult with* a person."—"To *abstain from* a thing."—"To have *antipathy against* a person," &c.

438. Prepositions exhibit the wonderful economy of language. The number of relations is almost infinite, yet they are all expressed by a comparatively small number of prepositions, and this without any confusion or danger of mistake. We are guided in the meaning by the nature of the ideas between which the relation exists; but if one local relation were used for another, confusion would immediately arise.

439. As the use of prepositions is designed to serve the same purpose as *inflections,* we find that a language with comparatively little inflection, like the English, has a proportionably greater number of prepositions.

440. The following list of prepositions embraces those in common use:—

About	at	by	on	under
Above	athwart	concerning	over	underneath
across	before	down	out of	to
after	behind	during	past	touching
against	below	except	respecting	towards
along	beneath	excepting	regarding	until
amid *ar*	beside *or*	for	round	unto
amidst	besides	from	since	up
among *or*	between	in	through	upon
amongst	betwixt	into	throughout	with
around	beyond	of	till	within
				without

Several words in this list are frequently used as other parts of speech, especially *till, unto, after, before,* &c.

441. A preposition may always be distinguished from other parts of speech by observing, that it has always a noun, or something supplying the place of a noun depending on it, and it cannot be removed from one part of the sentence to another, except in connection with this object.

Table of Prepositions.

Prepositions express relations of

1. Place,	Rest in,	In.
	Motion to or from,	To, from.
	Both rest and motion,	Over.
2. Time,	Time as well as place,	At.
	Time only,	Till.
3. Agent and instrument,		By, with.
4. Cause,		For.
5. Miscellaneous ideas such as	Separation,	Without.
	Inclination,	For.
	Aversion,	Against.
	Substitution,	Instead of.
	Possession,	Of.
	Reference,	Touching.
	Opposition,	Against.

SYNTAX OF THE PREPOSITION.

XV.—A preposition expresses the relation between some word, noun or pronoun, depending upon it, and some other word in

the sentence; as, "Let us walk *through* the garden; "I am uneasy *about* him."

XV.—Certain words and phrases should be followed by appropriate prepositions; as, confide *in*, adapted *to*, &c.

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442. ORDER OF PARSING THE PREPOSITION.

Preposition of { Place, Time, Agent, Instrument, Cause, Separation, &c. } Expressing the relation between, &c.

Rule.

Example,—"I was standing *on* the deck *at* the time."

On.—A preposition of place, expressing the relation between standing and deck.

At.—A preposition of time and place, expressing the relation between standing and time.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES ON THE PREPOSITION.

Define the preposition. Between what kind of words does a preposition most frequently show relation? Give examples to show that the same preposition may have more than one object. Give examples to show that one adjunct may depend upon another, and that again upon another, &c. Give examples to show that instead of placing the adjunct after the word on which it depends it is sometimes better to place it first. What is said about *concerning, excepting, regarding?* What is said about *during* and *notwithstanding?* What is said of *out of, from between, from beyond,* &c.? Into how many classes do you divide prepositions? Give those of each class. Are there as many different prepositions as there are different relations existing among things and ideas? How is it that confusion does not arise from this cause? Why has the English language a greater number of prepositions than languages more inflected? About what number of prepositions are there in the English language? Repeat the table of prepositions. Classify the list of prepositions, according to the table. Repeat the rules of syntax for the preposition. Repeat the order of parsing the preposition.

16TH EXERCISE.

THE PREPOSITION.

1. Parse the prepositions in the following sentences, according to the order and example given:—

We visited the grave of my mother. I was standing on the deck at the time. We started just as the cathedral clock struck six. Such an effort is beyond all praise. I returned from Montreal last week. The horse was running through the pasture yesterday. I have resigned on account of my health. He went on instead of returning home. We are liable to such things. He has a heart of iron. Do you still adhere to that opinion. I must laugh at your comical attempts. I heard the story of the child. On Friday last we went from Toronto to Hamilton by the lake in two hours. It is, on that account, not consistent with the profession of sincerity of purpose. I am uneasy about him. The letter was written by his brother. Let us walk around the enclosure. We were overtaken by a storm. We toiled on from that time until we were out of danger. I suppose you are accustomed to such things. Heaven, from all creatures, hides the book of fate.

2. Go over this exercise again and parse according to the prescribed form, the nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs and prepositions.

CONJUNCTIONS.

443. A CONJUNCTION is a word which connects words, phrases, or sentences; as, "He *and* I must go, *but* you may stay." "Of him, *and* through him, *and* to him, are all things."

444. The distinguishing office of the conjunction is really to connect the different clauses of an extended sentence; but few of the numerous family of conjunctions are ever used to connect *words* or *phrases*, and, in many instances, when they appear to connect only words or phrases, they really connect clauses. A classification of conjunctions must, therefore, be based on the various relations

which the different kinds of clauses bear to each other, for, it is the meaning of the word used to connect them, that determines this relation. The full explanation of the use of conjunctions can therefore be given only in connection with the analysis of complex and compound sentences.

445. The following classification will be found sufficient to distinguish between the various relations that exist between *co-ordinate* clauses, and between *principal* and *subordinate* clauses.

446. They are divided into *Copulative* and *Disjunctive.*

447. A COPULATIVE Conjunction is one which not only joins sentences together, but also unites their meaning.

448. They are divided into two kinds, *Additive* and *Continuative.* The ADDITIVE are those that unite clauses as the sign (+) *plus* unites quantities. They are—*and, also, likewise, moreover, further,* &c.

449. The CONTINUATIVE are those which connect subordinate clauses of the adverbial kind to sentences, the meaning of which they are introduced to continue or complete. They are divided into classes corresponding nearly with the classification of adverbs; they are—*before, where, that, ere, whither, except, after, whence, however, when, because, as if, whilst, if, so that, until, unless, whenever, though, as, although, than, till.*

450. A DISJUNCTIVE Conjunction is one which, while it joins two clauses together, disconnects their meaning.

451. They are also divided into two classes, *Distributive* or *Alternative,* and *Adversative.*

452. The DISTRIBUTIVE are those that connect clauses that are to be taken separately, or one of which is to be taken, to the exclusion of the others. They are—*or, nor, either, neither.*

453. The ADVERSATIVE are those that connect clauses that are contrasted with, or opposed to each other. They are—*but, nevertheless, however, still, notwithstanding, yet,* &c.

454. Many of the words included in the above list of the *Continuative,* perform the office of both adverb and conjunction at the same time, and may very properly be called CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS.

455. There are also many compound conjunctions; such as, *as well as, as soon as, in as far as, in as much as, as far as,* &c.

456. Many are also correlative with some adverb or conjunction which has preceded them; for instance:

As	is	used correlatively	with *so, as, such, the same,* &c.
Yet	"	"	" through.
Or	"	"	" whether, either.
Than	"	"	" more or less.
That	"	"	" *so.*
Nor	"	"	" neither.
Else	"	"	" if, than, otherwise.

Conjunctions are

I Copulative,

1. Additive. — And. Also. Likewise. Moreover. Further.

2. Continuative. — Before, where, that, Ere, whither, except. After. whence, however When, because, as if. Whilst, if, so that. Until, unless. Whenever, though. As, although, than.

II. Disjunctive,

1. Distributive. — Or, nor. Either, neither.

2. Adversative. — But. Nevertheless. However. Still. Notwithstanding. Yet.

SYNTAX OF THE CONJUNCTION.

XVI. Conjunctions connect words, phrases, or propositions; as, "You *and* he must go, *but* I will remain at home."

ORDER OF PARSING THE CONJUNCTION.

Cop.	Additive. / Continuative.	Connecting.	the words, &c. / the phrases,
		Co-ordinately, or Subordinately.	the clauses.
Disj.	Distributive. / Adversative.		Rule.

EXAMPLE—"I will accompany you if you call for me."

If—is a cop. conjunction, contin., connecting the adverbial clause "If you, &c, with the principal sentence.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES ON THE CONJUNCTION.

Define the Conjunction. What is the distinguishing office of the Conjunction? On what must a classification of Conjunctions be based? In connection with what subject will the Conjunction be best explained? Into what two general classes are Conjunctions divided? Define the Copulative. Into what classes are the Copulative subdivided? Define the Additive. Repeat them and give examples to show their use. Define the Continuative. Repeat the Continuative and give examples to show their use. Define the Disjunctive. Into what classes are the Disjunctive divided? Define the distributive and repeat them. Give examples to show their use. Define the Adversative and repeat them. Give examples to show their use. Which of those in the list of the Continuative are *Conjunctive Adverbs?* Repeat the Compound Conjunctions. Repeat the Correlative Conjunctions. Give examples to show how they are used. Repeat the table of Conjunctions. Repeat the order of parsing the conjunction.

17TH EXERCISE.

THE CONJUNCTION.

1. Parse the Conjunctions and Conjunctive Adverbs in the following sentences, according to the form given.

It was not the teacher but the pupil who was in fault. I will accompany you if you call for me. We had no sooner started than he became ill. The fact is so evident that it cannot be disputed. I know that you are quite in earnest. You cannot tell, because you were not present. Either James or William is to blame. Precept is not so forcible as example. Time flies rapidly, yet it appears to move slowly. He believes you because you never deceived him. Love not sleep lest you come to poverty. And when the day was far spent, we went into Jerusalem. You have great reason to be thankful and contented with your lot. He was industrious but irritable. Nevertheless, you must make all the haste in your power. He lives but eight miles from

the city. Think before you speak. Neither labor nor expense shall deter me. She is not as diligent as her sister.

2. Go over this exercise again and parse the *Nouns*, *Adjectives*, *Pronouns*, *Verbs*, *Adverbs*, and *Prepositions*, according to the order given for each.

3. Write sentences connected by the various classes of Conjunctions.

INTERJECTIONS.

457. An INTERJECTION is a word used in exclamations, to express an emotion of the mind, as, "Oh! what a fall was there!"

458. The *Interjection* is so called, because it is, as it were, *thrown in among* the words of a sentence, without any grammatical connection with them. Sometimes it stands at the beginning of a sentence, sometimes in the middle, and sometimes it stands alone, as if the emotion were too strong to admit of other words being spoken.

A LIST OF INTERJECTIONS.

459. The following is a list of the interjections most commonly used. They express various kinds of emotions, but in so vague and indefinite a way, as not to admit of accurate classification:—

Ah! alas! O! oh! ha! fudge! tush! pshaw! poh! pugh! fie! avaunt! ho! holla! aha! hurrah! huzza! bravo! hist! hush! heigho! heyday! hail! lo! welcome! halloo! adieu! &c.

460. Words belonging to other parts of speech, when uttered in an unconnected and forcible manner, to express emotion, are also called interjections; as, *nonsence! strange! wonderful! shocking! what! behold! off! away! hark! come! well done! welcome!* &c.

461. *O* is used to express a wish by an exclamation, and should be prefixed only to a noun or pronoun, in a direct address; as, "*O* Virtue! how amiable thou art!" *Oh* is used detached from the word, with a point of exclamation after it, or after the next word. It implies an emotion of pain, sorrow, or surprise; as, "*Oh!* what a sight is here!"

SYNTAX OF THE INTERJECTION.

XVII. Interjections have no grammatical

connection with the other words of a sentence.

I. FORM FOR WRITTEN EXERCISES IN PARSING.

"The minutest plant or animal, if it is examined attentively, affords a thousand wonders, and obliges us to admire and adore that Omnipotent Hand by which it was created."

The	A limiting adjective, belonging to *plant* or *animal*.
minutest ...	Descriptive adjective, superlative degree, belongs to *plant* or *animal*, according to Rule.
plant	Common noun, singular, nominative to *affords* and *obliges*.
or	Disjunctive conjunction, connects *plant* and *animal*.
animal	Common noun, singular, nominative to *affords* and *obliges*.
if	Copulative conjunction, continuative, connects adverbial clause, expressing a condition, &c., to principal.
it	Personal pronoun, neuter, third, singular, (to agree with its antecedent, *plant* or *animal*, according to Rule, "Pronouns must agree, &c.)" and nominative to *is examined*, according to Rule.
is examined.	Verb, regular, transitive, third, singular, present, indicative, passive; agreeing with its nominative *it*. According to Rule, "A verb, &c."
attentively ..	Adverb of manner, modifying the verb *is examined*.
affords	Verb, regular, transitive, third, singular, present, indicative, agreeing with its nominative *plant* or *animal*, according to Rule, "A verb," &c.
a	A limiting adjective, belonging to *thousand wonders*, as one whole.
thousand ...	Limiting adjective, cardinal, numeral, belonging to *wonders*, according to Rule, "Adjectives belong," &c.
wonders	A noun, common, plural, objective to *affords*. Rule, "Transitive verbs," &c.
and	Copulative conjunction, additive, connecting the coordinate propositions, "the minutest," &c., and "obliges us," &c.
obliges	A verb, regular, transitive, third, singular, present, indicative, agreeing with its nominative, *plant* or *animal*.
us	Personal pronoun, first, plural, to agree with its antecedent, the speakers, and objective to *obliges*. Rule, "Transitive verbs," &c.

to admire ..	Verbal noun, indirect, objective to obliges. RULE, "The infinitive," &c.
and	A copulative conjunction, additive, connecting co-ordinately "to admire" and "to adore."
adore	Verbal noun, same construction as "*to admire.*"
that	Limiting adjective, demonstrative, belongs to noun hand.
Omnipotent.	Descriptive adjective, positive degree, compared by more and most, belongs to the noun "hand."
hand	Common noun, singular, objective to "adore." RULE, "Transitive verbs," &c.
by.....	A preposition expressing the agent, shows the relation between "was created," and "which."
which	A relative pronoun, neuter, third, singular, to agree with its antecedent "hand," according to RULE, "Pronouns must agree," &c.; and objective of preposition "by." RULE, "Prepositions govern," &c.
it	A personal pronoun, neuter, third, singular, to agree with its antecedent, "plant" or "animal." RULE "Pronouns must agree," &c., and nominative to was created.
was created .	A verb, regular, transitive, third, singular, past, indicative, passive, agreeing with its nominative it, according to RULE, "A verb must agree," &c.

II. FORM FOR WRITTEN EXERCISES WHEN THE CONSTRUCTION ONLY IS REQUIRED.

* "He was very poor, and begged earnestly for food."

**He*	Personal pronoun, standing for, &c., and nominative to "was and begged."
was.....	A verb, third, singular, to agree with its nominative "He."
very.....	Adverb, modifying adjective "poor."
poor	Adjective, qualifying "He."
and.	Conjunction connecting co-ordinately predicates "was poor and begged."
begged	A verb, third, singular, to agree with its nominative "He."
earnestly ...	Adverb, modifying "begged."
for	A preposition, showing the relation between "begged" and "food."
food	A noun, objective to "begged."

18TH EXERCISE.

GENERAL EXERCISE IN PARSING.

Write out the parsing of the following sentences, according to the form I. given above:—

On yourself depend for aid. It was I who wrote the letter. He had the honor of being a director for life. Your being from home occasioned the delay. He did his utmost to please his friends. Calm was the day, and the scene delightful. They are much greater gainers than I by this unexpected event. He was in Paris last month. Will you lend me your knife. The house is thirty-six feet deep, and twenty-five wide. I like to see you behave so well. Whose gray top shall tremble, he descending. The prophets! Where are they? William, call at the doctor's as you return. I am come, in compliance, with your desire. The old house is fallen down. Proceeding on his journey, he was seized with a dangerous malady. By what means shall we obtain wisdom. Whatever is worth doing at all, is worth doing well. Foolish persons are more apt to consider what they have lost, than what they possess. What cannot be prevented must be endured. He who is a stranger to industry, may possess, but he cannot enjoy. He is a friend whom I greatly respect. I saw who understood my remarks. They taught him and me to write. It was not I, but I know who it was.

Write out the parsing of the remainder, according to form II. given above.

They whom luxury has corrupted cannot relish the pleasures of life. The inquisitive are much to be pitied. I dispatched the letter myself. He injures himself by his anxiety. They gathered the flowers themselves. Hope, the balm of life, is our greatest friend. Temperance, the preserver of health, should be the study of all men. His meat was locusts and wild honey. He was the life of the company. We have been attentive to our business to-day. These streams are deep and wide. They waited for a fit time and

place. A steady, sweet and cheerful temper affords great delight to its possessor.

Before entering on the next subject, there should be a general revisal from the beginning. This can be very thoroughly done by the aid of the examination questions and exercises at the close of each part. In going over the exercises, it may be only necessary to require the *construction* of the words and the *application* of the Rules of Syntax.

PART III.

SYNTAX.

DEFINITIONS.

462. SYNTAX treats of the arrangement and combination of words in sentences.

PROPOSITION.

463. A Proposition is a predicate connected with its subject to express a thought; as, "*man is mortal.*"

464. Propositions may be Declaratory; as, *God is love;* or Interrogatory; as, *Will you go?* or Exclamatory; as, *What trouble you have!* or Imperative; as *Prepare to march.*

465. Propositions may be divided, according to the relation they bear to each other, when united in an extended sentence, into Principal and Subordinate.

466. A Principal Proposition is one which does not depend on, or form a subordinate part of any other sentence,

467. A Subordinate Proposition is one which is employed merely to complete or modify another, and which performs the part of a noun, adjective, or adverb to the word or sentence with which it is subordinately connected; as, I see *that you are in a hurry* (a noun sentence). This is the book *which I lent* (an adjective sentence). I will visit you *when I return* (an adverbial sentence). The term *co-ordinate* is opposed to *subordinate.*

SENTENCE.

468. A Sentence is a proposition; or, a number of propositions connected together in the expression of an extended thought.

469. A Sentence is either *Simple*, *Complex*, or *Compound*.

470. A Simple Sentence consists of but one proposition; as, "Columbus discovered America."

471. A Complex Sentence consists of one principal proposition, with one or more subordinate clauses connected with it; as, "He will be rewarded *when he returns*."

472. A Compound Sentence consists of two or more principal propositions co-ordinate with each other; as, *It was night and the moon shone brightly*."

CLAUSE.

473. The propositions of Compound and Complex Sentences are called "Clauses."

PHRASE.

474. A Phrase is any combination of words sanctioned by usage which is not a proposition; as, "*In fact*." "*Having done so*." "*To be compelled to wait*,"·&c.

475. Phrases are divided, like subordinate clauses, according to the office they perform into *noun*, *adjective*, and *adverbial*.

476. Phrases, like sentences, are either *Simple*, *Complex or Compound*.

477. A phrase is Simple, when it has no other phrase either co-ordinately or subordinately connected with it; as, "*On the ground*."

478. A phrase is Complex, when it consists of two or more phrases subordinately connected; as, "At the close of the day."

479. A phrase is Compound, when it consists of two or more phrases co-ordinately connected; as, "At night and in the morning.

480. Phrases may be classed, according to the principal word in each, into Infinitive, Participial, and Prepositional; as, "To have risen no higher." "Having already done so." "Through the woods."

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS ON THE DEFINITIONS.

What is a proposition? Give an example. In what different ways may a proposition be expressed? Give an example of each. How may propositions be divided, according to the relation they bear to each other? Give examples of each. What is a sentence? Into what three classes are sentences divided? What is a simple sentence? What is a compound sentence? Give an example. What is a complex sentence? Give an example. What is meant by a clause? Give an example. What is meant by a phrase? Give examples of phrases. Phrases supply the place of what three parts of speech? What is the distinction between a simple, compound, and complex phrase? Give examples of each. Give examples of Infinitive, participial, and prepositional phrases.

19TH EXERCISE.

DEFINITIONS.

1. In the following exercise, point out the simple, compound, and complex sentences.

2. Classify each subordinate clause as noun, adjective, or adverbial.

3. Point out the phrases and classify them: 1st., as prepositional, infinitive, and participial. 2nd., as noun adjective, and adverbial. 3rd., as simple, compound, and complex.

Like the leaves of the forest, they all pass away. The poor fellow, baffled so often, became, at last, disheartened. The money being secured, he completed the purchase. When Æneas landed in Italy is not known. It is obvious why he did not go. Life is short and art is long. What in me is dark, illumine;

what is low, raise and support. Talent is power, tact is skill; talent is wealth, tact is ready money. Shall I study the lesson which you gave out yesterday, or shall I write my composition? He is a sensible man, though he is not a genius. Land was very low, so I concluded not to sell mine. Enter when I ring the bell. Send your harness to be repaired.

"Triumphal arch! that fillest the sky when storms prepare to part,
I ask not proud philosophy to teach me what thou art."

THE ELEMENTS OF A SENTENCE.

481. Every thought supposes 1st., Something that we think about; and, 2nd., The notion we form about it. The bringing these two notions together, so as to express the connection, forms a Proposition. The *thing we think about* is called the SUBJECT; the word that expresses *what we think about* it, is called the PREDICATE. These two constitute the *Primary* and *Essential* elements of a proposition; as,

"*Trees are growing.*"

482. The word that connects the two notions is called the *copula*, and the notion that is connected by the copula to the subject, is called the *attribute*. The copula and attribute taken together, constitute the *predicate*. Thus, in the above example,—

	Predicate.	
Subject.	*Copula*	*Attribute.*
TREES	ARE	GROWING.

483. In the parts of the verb formed by auxiliaries, the copula is contained in the auxiliary; as, He *will* have written.

484. The Copula and Attribute are not always separated as in the above example, but are more frequently expressed by one word, which must be a verb, called in that case *an attributive* verb.

485. A Proposition which consists only of a simple subject and

predicate, and nothing more, is in its barest and most elementary form.

486. The subject, in this bare unmodified form, is called the *Grammatical Subject*; and the predicate, the *Grammatical Predicate.*

487. If the verb is *transitive*, and in the active voice, it must be completed by its object; as, "The miller *left* the *city.*"

488. These *primary elements* may have subordinate elements attached to each of them, for the purpose of modifying or extending their meaning, thus:—

My *father's* MILLER left the city.
My father's *unfortunate* MILLER left the city.
My father's unfortunate MILLER, *Wilson,* left the city.
My father's unfortunate MILLER, Wilson, *from Perth,* left the city.
My father's unfortunate MILLER, Wilson, from Perth, *who was convicted of stealing,* left the city.

489. Here we see how the subject may be enlarged by attaching to it attributes of various kinds.

490. So also, the predicate may be extended by attaching to it modifications of various kinds. Take, for instance, the predicate of the same sentence, "*Left the city:*"—

Left the city, *unexpectedly.*
Left the city, unexpectedly, *this morning.*
Left the city, unexpectedly, this morning, *by the cars.*
Left the city, unexpectedly, this morning, by the cars, *for the penitentiary.*
Left the city, unexpectedly, this morning, by the cars, for the penitentiary, *when his wife was away.*

491. These modifying words may themselves be modified; as, "father's—*my* father's; "unfortunate,"—*very* unfortunate, &c. "Left the city,"—city *of Montreal;* "morning,"—*stormy* morning; "by the cars,"—by the *western* cars: "when his wife was away,"—*just* when his *poor* wife was away, &c.

492. Words introduced in this way to modify the Primary Elements, and to modify other modifying words, may be called SUBORDINATE *elements*.

493. The words used simply to connect the different clauses or other parts of the sentence together, may be called CONNECTING *elements*.

494. Then, there are other words used *occasionally*, in a manner which distinguishes them from any of the three preceding. For instance: NOUNS in the INDEPENDENT CASE; as, *George*, come here; The *prophets!* where are they? INTERJECTIONS; as, *Alas!* is he dead? EXPLETIVE ADVERBS; as, *There* was a time. Words used in this way, having no grammatical connection with any other words, may be called INDEPENDENT *elements*.

495. Every word used in any sentence, must belong to one or other of these elements. Hence, the elements employed in forming sentences, are:

1st. PRIMARY ELEMENTS—Subject and Predicate.

2nd. SUBORDINATE ELEMENTS — Complements attached to one or other of the primary or other subordinate elements.

3rd. CONNECTING ELEMENTS—Conjunctions, Conjunctive Adverbs, Relative Pronouns, Prepositions, &c.

4th. INDEPENDENT ELEMENTS—Nouns and Pronouns used independently:—by Address, by Pleonasm, before a Participle, by Exclamation, &c.

PRIMARY ELEMENTS OF A SENTENCE.

SUBJECT.

496. The Subject, being that about which the assertion is made, must be a noun or some word or combination of words supply-

ing the place of a noun; and, as a noun may be expanded into a *phrase*, or into a *sentence;* hence, The *Subject* of a verb may be a *word*, a *phrase*, or a *sentence;* for instance,

Word { A Noun—*James* reads the book.
A Pronoun—*You* read the book.
An Adjective—*The good alone* are great.

Phrase { An Infinitive—*To speak plainly*, is my intention.
A Participial—*Walking into the country* is pleasant.

Clause. { Fact, *That you were mistaken* is now manifest.
Time, —*When he will return* is quite uncertain.
Place, —*Where I saw you before* has escaped my Memory.
Quotation—*I cannot do it* never accomplished anything.

SIMPLE, COMPOUND, AND COMPLEX SUBJECT.

497. The Subject may be either simple, compound, or complex.

498. A Simple Subject consists of only one subject of thought as, *Lights* were shining.

499. A compound subject consists of two or more Simple Subjects of the same kind (either words, phrases, or propositions) to which belongs but one predicate; as, William and Thomas will be here to-morrow." "My having succeeded in my mission, and relieved myself of all responsibility, affords me great relief." "That he should make such a statement, and that they should credit it, surprise me much.

500. A Complex Subject consists of two or more Simple Subjects of different kinds (words, phrases and clauses) or differently connected, to which belongs but one predicate; as, "The occurrence itself, and its having been concealed from you, look very suspicious." "The difficulty of the undertaking, but especially that it should have been so cleverly executed, does him great credit."

501. NOTE.—The classification of *subjects* and *predicates* into *simple*, *compound*, and *complex* may not be practically of much importance, it will, however, sometimes, be found useful, and for the sake of uniformity, it is thought better to insert it.

THE PREDICATE.

502. The PREDICATE is that which is affirmed of the subject.

503. The Predicate affirms either what the subject *is*, or what it *does*, or what *is done to it*; as, "*James reads the book.*" "*James is a student.*" "*James is praised by his friends.*"

504. The simple or grammatical predicate, like the subject, may be expanded into a *phrase*, and even *into a sentence*, by separating the copula and attribute; thus—

Word { Attributive Intransitive Verb—The snow *melts.*
Attributive Transitive Verb—They *built* a *ship.*

			COPULA	ATTRIBUTES.
Phrase	Copula and Noun, —James		is	a *scholar.*
	" Pronoun,	— "	is	*he.*
	" Adjective,	— "	is	*kind.*
	" Adjunct,	— "	is	*in Toronto.*
	" Adverb,	— "	is	*here.*
	" Participle,	— "	is	*learned.*
	" Infinitive,	— "	is	*to be married.*

Clause [Noun sentence],—The order is, *that we must return.*

SIMPLE, COMPOUND AND COMPLEX PREDICATE.

505. The Predicate, like the Subject, is either Simple, Compound, or Complex.

506. A Simple Predicate ascribes to its subject but one attribute: as, "Life *is short.*" "Time *flies.*"

507. A Compound Predicate consists of two or more simple predicates of the same kind affirmed of one subject; as,

"He tried each art, reproved each dull delay,
Allured to brighter worlds and led the way."

508. A Predicate may be called complex that consists of two or more simple predicates of different kinds, differently connected, or so different in themselves, as to require special words to be attached to each to make them harmonize with what follows; as, "I consented, and was about to start, but had not yet taken my

ticket." "That sentence is too long and reads badly, but is not without merit." "A name can only describe, stand for, and be a name of things of which it can be predicated."

COMPLETION OF THE PREDICATE.

509. When the Predicate is a transitive verb in the Active Voice, it must be completed by a noun or by some word or words representing the thing to which the action is done, called its *objective*, The *objective*, therefore, like the subject, may take the form of a word, phrase, or clause; as,

Word	Noun,	—The man digs the *garden.*
	Pronoun,	—We see *him.*
	Adjective,	—We instruct the *ignorant.*
Phrase	Infinitive,	—James loves *to travel.*
	Participial,	—If he escapes *being banished from the school*
Clause	Quotation,	—He said, "*Knowledge is power.*"
	Result,	—I fear *that you will lose it.*
	Fact,	—I doubt not *but that you were justified.*
	Indirect question,	—I understand who is to blame.
	" "	—I have heard *what you want.*
	" "	—I know *where you were.*
	" "	—I enquired *how* he did it.

510 The objective, like the subject, may be either *Simple*, *Compound*, or *Complex.*

The objective is SIMPLE, when it is a single word, phrase, or proposition.

511. The Objective is COMPOUND when two or more words phrases, or propositions co-ordinately connected, stand as the objective of the verb; as, "I met James, William and John." "He invited my brother and me to examine his library."

512. The Objective is COMPLEX when *two* words are required to express it completely; for instance.

DIRECT AND REMOTE OBJECT.	DIRECT AND INDIRECT OBJECT.
He taught them logic.	We call him a doctor.
The ring cost me five dollars.	This reduced it to an absurdity.
He offered us his carriage.	They accused him of treachery.
Ask him his opinion.	He commanded the army to [march.
I told him what I wanted.	I heard him call.

BOTH DIRECT AND REMOTE.

"Did I request *thee*, Maker, from my clay
To mould me man?"—MILTON.

ENLARGED OR LOGICAL SUBJECT.

513. We have seen that the *primary elements* of a sentence are the *Subject* and *Predicate*, and that the Predicate, when a transitive verb, in the active voice, must be completed by its objective. We propose, now, to show more fully, how the meaning of these primary elements may be enlarged and extended, by attaching subordinate elements to each.

514. As we find that the *primary elements* can be expressed either by a *word*, *phrase*, or *clause*, so the subordinate elements attached to each, may take the form either of *words*, *phrases*, or *clauses*.

515. As we found that the primary elements may be either *simple*, *complex*, or *compound*, so the modifying elements attached to each may be either *simple*, *complex*, or *compound*.

516. As the subject and Object will be either a noun, or noun phrase, or noun sentence. we must enquire:

1st. What complements a *noun* can take.

2nd. What complements or enlargements, *participial* and *infinitive phrases* can take.

3rd. When the Subject, Object, &c., is a subordinate clause, the sentence according to the definition would be *complex*. These therefore, will be examined most properly under the head of *Complex Sentences*.

517. ENLARGEMENTS OF THE NOUN.

Word
- 1. By an Adjective or Adjective word.
  - A limiting, —*The*[1] house.
  - A qualifying, —The *new*[2] house.
  - A verbal, —The new house *built*.[3]
  - A Poss. case, —The *governor's*[4] new house built.
  - An Appos. noun,—The governor's new house, *Oak Lodge*,[5] built.

Phrase { 1. Prepositional, —The piece *of plate.*
2. Infinive, —The piece of plate *to be presented.*
3. Participial, —The piece of plate to be presented, *having been injured,* is sent to you to be repaired.

518. The above are the various enlargements by means of words and phrases, which a noun in any position may take. The simple grammatical subject, together with its various enlargements is called the *enlarged* or *logical* subject.

COMPOUND ENLARGEMENT.

519. Two or more extensions of any word co-ordinately connected, may be called a Compound enlargement; as,

Possessive,—"*Allen, Mason and Dixon's* store."
Apposition,—"Thou *more than hero,* and *just less than sage.*"
Adjective,—"A *most useful and interesting* book."
Prepositional Phrase,—"The *hour* of desperate struggle, and of decisive victory."
Infinitive " —"A day *never to be forgotten,* and *always to be revered.*"
Participial " —"The furniture *having been taken away and destroyed.*"

COMPLEX ENLARGEMENT.

520. When a qualifying term is itself further qualified, and especially when this enlargement is again qualified, and so on, to a number of degrees from the principal word, it is called *Complex;* for example,

Wolsey, the *son* [1] *of a butcher* [2] *residing* [3] *at Ipswich,* [4] *a town* [5] *in the south* [6] *of England.* [7]

A man *skilled* [1] *in the learned subtilties* [2] *of the school-men* [3] *who generally managed to bewilder, not only their disciples, but themselves.* [4]

He chose a question [1]*with many points* [2]*of practical interest in it.*

"Some angel guide my pencil while I draw
What nothing else than angel can exceed,
A man *on earth, devoted to the skies,*
Like ships at sea, while in, above the world."

521. These complex extensions should receive, special attention.

The subordinate modifying clauses, like any other propositions may, of course, be either Simple Complex or Compound; for example,

Complex—But we must consider, that the tender melancholy of sympathy, is accompanied with a sensation, which they who feel it would not exchange for the gratification of the selfish.

522. Compound—If there is any passion which intrudes itself unseasonably into our minds, which darkens our judgment, which discomposes our temper; which unfits us for discharging the duties, or disqualifies us for cheerfully enjoying the comforts of life, we may certainly conclude it to have gained a dangerous ascendant.

EXTENDED OR LOGICAL PREDICATE.

523. The predicate, in addition to being completed by the objective, may be extended by *words*, *phrases*, or *clauses*, to express *time*, *place*, *manner*, &c., and these extensions, as in the case of the subject, may be either *simple*, *complex* or *compound;* for example,—

WORDS.	PHRASES.
Time.—I shall see *presently*	I will go *on Wednesday.*
Place,—You will find it *there.*	He lives *in London.*
Manner,—You act *wisely.*	He spoke *with caution.*
Result,—The milk turned *sour.*	The wind *rose to a hurricane.*
Negation,—I did *not* see it.	I do *in no wise* agree *with you.*
Number,—I spoke *twice.*	I see him *now and again.*
Interrogative,—*How* are you.	*For what reason* do you say so?

Compound Extension.	Complex Extension.
Time,—I will go *on Wednesday or Thursday.*	I will go on the first Wednesday of May.
Place,—You will find it *there* or *in the drawer.*	You will find it *in the drawer of the table in the back room up stairs.*
Manner,—You speak truly *and to the point.*	They act *in a manner fitted to alarm the people in the neighbourhood of Yorkville.*
Result,—He painted the house *white and brown and oak color.*	The wind blew a *hurricane most destructive in its effects on the crops of the peasantry of the valley.*

MODIFICATION OF MODIFYING WORDS.

524. We have seen, in the examples given of complex extensions of the subject and predicate, how the subordinate elements may themselves be modified.

525. A *noun* or pronoun, for instance, as a subordinate element, may be qualified in any way in which a noun or pronoun as a principal element, can be qualified.

526. An *infinitive*, or *participial phrase*, however employed, being verbal in its character, may be completed and modified in all respects, as the verb from which it is derived.

527. An Adjective may be modified:

By an adverb; as, "He is *remarkably* diligent."

By an infinitive; as, "Be swift *to hear*," "Slow to *speak*."

By a prepositional phrase; as, "Be not weary *in well doing*."

528. An Adverb may be modified:

By an adverb; as, "Yours *very* sincerely."

By an adjunct; as, "Agreeably *to nature*."

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS

ON THE PRIMARY ELEMENTS, AND ON THE MODIFICATIONS OF THE PRIMARY ELEMENTS BY WORDS AND PHRASES.

What does every thought suppose? When these two things are brought together, what is the *result?* What then is essential to the expression of a thought? Of what three parts does a proposition consist? Give an example. How are the copula and attri-

bute usually expressed? What is meant by the grammatical subject and grammatical predicate? What then are the primary elements of a sentence? What are the subordinate elements? Illustrate, by an example, the use of the subordinate elements. Point out and classify the subordinate elements in the sentence introduced to illustrate this. Give examples to show that these modifying words may themselves be modified. What other elements may a sentence contain. Illustrate the use of connectives. Give examples of sentences containing independent elements. What must the subject of a proposition be? What *words* may be used as the subject instead of a noun? Give examples. What phrases may be used as the subject? Give examples of each. Give an example of a proposition expressing time used, as the subject. Give one expressing action—one expressing *place.* What is the distinction between simple, compound, and complex subjects? Give an example of each. What is the predicate? How may the predicate be expanded into a phrase, and into a clause? When the copula and attribute are expressed by separate words, by what different words may the attributes be expressed? Give examples. By what phrases may the attribute be expressed? Give an example of each. Give an example of a clause used as the attribute.

Give examples to show the distinction between a compound and complex predicate. What completiondoes a transitive verb in the active voice require? Give an example. When the objective is expressed by a single word, what words may be substituted for a noun? Give an example of each. When the object is expressed by a phrase, what phrases may be used? Give an example of each. When the object is expressed by a clause, what clauses may be used as examples? When may the object be called compound and when complex? Give examples to illustrate the direct and remote objects of a verb, and the direct and indirect objects. How may the primary elements of a sentence be modified? In what particulars do the subordinate elements resemble the primary? Under what head does the enlargement of the noun by subordinate propositions properly fall? Why? When a nonn is modified by single words, what different parts of speech may be used. Give an example of each. When a noun is modified by phrases, what phrases may be used? Give an example of each. What is meant by the logical subject? Give sentences containing examples of complex enlargements. What modifications does the predicate take? Give examples of the predicate modified by words and phrases to express time, place, manner, result, &c. Give a sentence containing a compound modification. Give an example containing a complex modification. What modifications may an infinitive or participial phrase take? Give an example. What modifications does an adjective admit of? Give an example. What modifications does an adverb admit of? Give an example.

20TH EXERCISE.

1. Write six simple sentences, each having a subject of a different kind, (words, phrases, clauses) and each subject enlarged by various complements to the fullest extent, consistent with the requirements of a good sentence, without using complex enlargements.

2. Write six simple sentences, each having a predicate of a different kind, (transitive, intransitive, copula and attrible, &c.) and each predicate extended by various modifications to the fullest extent consistent with the requirements of a good sentence, without using complex modifications.

3. Write six simple sentences, enlarging the subject and extending the predicate (by using complex complements) to the fullest extent, consistent with the requirements of a good sentence.

4. Analyze each of the above eighteen sentences orally: thus,

   1. Name the logical subject and logical predicate.
   2. Name the grammatical subject.
   3. Show the modifications of the grammatical subject.
   4. Show by what modifying words, if any, each modifying word is modified.
   5. Name the grammatical predicate.
   6. Show by what words or phrases the grammatical predicate is modified.
   7. Show by what words or phrases each modifying word is modified.

Select six such simple sentences from standard prose writers, and six from the standard poets, and analyze them in the same manner.

FORM FOR WRITTEN EXERCISES IN ANALYZING SIMPLE SENTENCES.

"On the very day of our arrival, my kind-hearted cousin Henry, anxious to hasten us forward to our distressed friends with the least possible delay, despatched a telegram to the next village, directing the stage proprietor to be in readiness to start immediately on our reaching that place."

GENERAL ANALYSIS.

LOGICAL SUBJECT.	GRAMMAT'L PREDICATE.	LOGICAL OBJ.	EXTENSIONS OF THE PREDICATE.
*(1) My (2) kind-hearted COUSIN (3) Henry (4) anxious to hasten us forward to our distressed friends with the least possible delay	DESPATCHED	a telegram directing the stage proprietor to be in readiness to start immediately on our reaching that place.	(1) On the very day of our arrival (2) to the next village

FORM FOR MORE DETAILED ALALYSIS.

a. *On the very day* .....extension of the PRED. (time) (1).†
b. *of our arrival*.....adjunct of *day* in *a*, (2).
c. *my* .....attrib. to Sub. (1).
d. *kind-hearted* .....attrib. to Sub. (1).
e. COUSIN .....SUBJECT OF SENTENCE.
f. *Henry*.....attrib. (apposition) to Sub. (1).
g. *anxious* .....attrib. to Sub. (1).
h. *to hasten* .....objective completion to *g*, (2).
i. *us* .....objective completion to *h*, (3).
j. *forward* .....modification of *h* with *i* (3) (direction)
k. *to our distressed friends* ..adjunct of *h*, (3).
l. *with the least possible delay*.adjunct of *h*, (3).
m. DISPATCHED.....PREDICATE OF SENTENCE.
n. *a telegram*.....object. to *m*.
o. *to the next village* .....exten. of Pred. (1) (place to which).
p. *directing* .....attrib. to *n*, (2).
q. *the stage proprietor*.....object. to *p*. (3).
r. *to be in readiness* .....indirect Obj. to *p*, (3). [stood).
s. *to start*.....indirect Obj. to *r*, (4), (*for* under-
t. *immediately* .....modification of *s*, (5), (time).
u. *on our reaching that place*.adjunct of *s*, (5.)

* The figures (1), (2), (3), &c., are here intended to separate from the others, and keep distinct, each attribute of the subject and object, and each extension of the predicate.

† The figures (1), (2), (3), &., mean one, two, three, &c., removes from the principal parts of the sentence.

SIMPLE SENTENCES.

FOR PRACTICE IN ANALYSIS.

Analyze the following sentences according to the above forms:—

1.

"Of pure barbarisms, I do not mean to give examples, not having met with any in a reputable writer."—*Connon's Grammar.*

2.

"Such terms have a pleasant facility of throwing away the matter in question to scorn, without any trouble of making a definite, intelligible charge of extravagance or delusion, and attempting to prove it."—*Foster's Essays.*

3.

"This irrationality of the romancers, and the age, provoked the powerful mind of Cervantes to expose it by means of a parallel, and still more extravagant representation of the prevalence of imagination over reason, drawn in a ludicrous form, to render the folly palpable even to the sense of that age."—*Foster's Esssys.*

4.

"The limitation of the duration of parliament, the independence of the Judges, the suppression of the illegal taxes, and courts of arbitrary arrests and imprisonment, the accountability of the treasury, and the responsibility of ministers, were all acts conducive to the public welfare."—*White's History.*

5.

"A huge and slovenly figure, clad in a greasy brown coat and coarse black worsted stockings, wearing a grey wig with scorched foretop, rolls in his arm chair long past midnight, holding in a dirty hand his nineteenth cup of tea."—*Collier.*

6.

"At that hour, just standing on the threshold of eternity, O how vain was every sublunary happiness! wealth, honor, empire, wisdom, all mere useless sounds, as empty as the bubbles of the deep."—*Father Kercher.*

9.

"Wisdom, in sable garb array'd,
Immersed in rapt'rous thought profound,
And melancholy, silent maid,
Still on thy silent steps attend,
With justice to herself severe,
And pity, dropping soft the sadly pleasing tear."—*Gray.*

8.

"Oh, gently, on thy suppliant's head,
Dread power, lay thy chast'ning hand!
Not in thy gorgon terrors clad,
Nor circled with thy vengeful band,
With thundering voice and threat'ning mien,
With screaming horror's funeral cry,
Despair, and fell disease, and ghastly poverty."—*Gray.*

9.

"He wanders on
From hill to dale still more and more astray,
Impatient flouncing through the drifted heaps;
Stung with the thoughts of home."—*Thompson.*

10.

"These are not wanting; nor the milky drove,
Luxuriant, spread o'er all the lowing vale;
Nor bleating mountains, nor the chide of streams,
And hum of bees, inviting sleep sincere
Into the guiltless breast, beneath the shade,
Or thrown at large amid the fragrant hay."—*Thompson.*

11.

"How often from the steeps
Of echoing hill or thicket, have we heard
Celestial voices to the midnight air,
Sole, or responsive each to other's note,
Singing their great Creator."—*Milton.*

Each member of the class select extended simple sentences in prose, and in poetry, to be read and examined in the class.

THE COMPLEX SENTENCE.

NOUN SENTENCE.

529. We have already seen that a noun, in any position which it can occupy in a sentence, may be expanded into a proposition, thereby changing the sentence from simple to *complex*. Such subordinate clauses are called NOUN SENTENCES, and should be construed in the analysis of the sentence in

which they occur, as nouns in a similar relation.

The following examples will illustrate the use of the noun sentence.

SUBJECT—"*That the soul is immortal* is believed by all nations, or, "It is universally believed *that the soul is immortal.*"

DIRECT OBJECTIVE—"All nations believe *that the soul is immortal.*" Pursue *whatever course you think best.*"

INDIRECT OBJECTIVE—"They told me *that you wish to see me.*"

PREDICATE NOMINATIVE—"The universal belief is, *that the soul is immortal.*" The fact is, *what you have stated.*

APPOSITION—"We cherish the belief *that the soul is immortal.*" The hope *that we will yet succeed* encourages us."

OBJECT OF ADJECTIVE—"I was anxious *that you should be present.*"

21ST EXERCISE.

In the following exercise, point out the construction of the noun sentences:

Why we did not go is obvious. It is doubtful whether he can finish the work. You know, sir, why he did not go. The cause of anxiety was why he did not write. I believe that he is innocent. It is reported that he has left the country. I am very desirous that you should be present. I understand how the error occurred. Can he hold his position, is the question. How can I forget your kindness he said. What cannot be prevented must be endured. Take what you want. What you have said gives me uneasiness. Whatever he orders must be done.

CONNECTIVES OF NOUN SENTENCES.

530. The conjunction "*that*" is the special connective of the Noun Sentence; —"*but that*" is sometimes used; as, "I doubt not *but that* you are sincere."

531. When the noun sentence is an indirect question, *who, when*

and *how* are the connectives; as, "I know *who* you are." He announced *when* we should meet." "I explained *how* it is done."

532. The clauses connected by *what, whatever, whatsoever, whichever, whichsoever* and *whoever* should be treated as *noun sentences.* There would then be no necessity for making them equivalent to "thing which;" for example, "You may take *whatever you want.*" *Whoever thinks so* misunderstands me, &c." The first clause is the *objective* to take. The second is the *nominative* to misunderstand.

ADJECTIVE SENTENCE.

533. When the attribute of a noun takes the form of a proposition, such a clause, of course, performs the office of an adjective, and may be called an *Adjective Sentence.*

534. A noun, in any position in which it can be modified by an *adjective,* may be modified by an *adjective clause;* for example,

SUBJECT.—"The ladies *who were present,* approved of the proposal."

OBJECT.—"The Architect condemned the work *which had been done.*"

ATTACHED to a modifying noun in the subject; as, "The books in the parcel, *which came in yesterday,* are to be presented to the children."

ATTACHED to a modifying noun in the predicate; as, "I purchased it at the store *which is directly opposite.*"

CONNECTIVES OF THE ADJECTIVE SENTENCE.

535. It will be observed that the words used to connect these adjective clauses to the nouns which they describe or qualify, are the RELATIVE PRONOUNS *who, which* and *that.*

536. When such words as *where, wherein, whither, why, wherefore, how, when*, &c., are used instead of relatives, they may also be used as connectives of the *adjective sentence;* as,

"The village *wherein he was born*, &c.

"The reason, *why he said so*, is obvious."

"The time, *when that will take place*, is far distant.

"The place, *where I met him*, is farther east."

ADVERBIAL SENTENCE.

537. Any of the extensions of the predicate, by means of adverbs and adverbial phrases, may be expanded into ADVERBIAL SENTENCES, thereby changing the sentence from simple to complex.

538. The following examples will illustrate the use of the *Adverbial Sentence.*

Time,—*When* the sun rises we shall set out.
Place,—I will call *wherever* you say he is.
Resemblance,—*As* blossoms in Spring, *so* are hopes in youth.
Comparison,—Mary is older *than* Jane, [is].
Proportion,—The *longer* you delay the *worse* it becomes.
Equality,—He is *as* urgent *as* he can be.
Effect,—You read so *that* I cannot understand you.
Cause.—He is not liked *because* he is meddlesome.
Condition,—I shall complete the work *if* I can.
Concession,—*Although* he is acquitted, he is *nevertheless* guilty.
Purpose,—Labour that you may inherit true riches.

539. The classification of these adverbial sentences, it will be observed, corresponds with the classification of the *continuative* and *adverbial* conjunctions. It is as connectives of these various adverbial sentences that these conjunctions are distinguished and classified.

CONNECTIVES OF THE ADVERBIAL SENTENCE.

540. The connectives of the adverbial sentence may be arranged under the four general heads of *Time, Place, Manner* and *Cause.*

Those relating to *time* are :—

When, whenever, as often as; whilst, till, until, as, as long as; after, before, ere, as soon as; now, that.

Those relating to *place* are :—

Where; whither; whence.

Those relating to *manner* are :

As, as if, how, as though; as...as, than, so...as, according as; that, so that.

Those relating to *Cause* or *Reason* are :—

Because, for, as, whereas, inasmuch as, forasmuch as, since, seeing that; if, unless, except, in case as; though, although, yet, notwithstanding however; that, so that, in order that, lest.

541. The different classes under each of these four general heads are separated by semicolons. The attention of the pupil should be directed to the different ideas denoted by each; as, for instance :—

Time Relative.—"I will go *when he returns.*" *Duration of time.*—"I will remain *until the business is settled.*"—*Place absolute.* "I found it *where you put it.*"—*Place to which*, "*Whither I go*, you cannot come," &c.

22ND EXERCISE.

1. In the following exercise, state which of the above ideas each adverbial clause expresses, and what is its construction :

As we approached the top of the hill we saw the Indians. He will be respected wherever he may be. We were so fatigued that we could not sleep. He has more muscle than brains. The deeper the well the cooler the water. I am sorry that you did not come. If Virgil was the better artist, Homer was the greater genius. He hesitated whether he should do so. They live where you used to live. I have not been there since I saw you last. I remained there until the meeting adjourned. Whither I go you cannot come.

"These lofty trees wave not less proudly,
That our ancestors moulder beneath them."

2. Write sentences containing adverbial clauses, joined to the principal propositions by connectives taken from each class of those expressing—*Time*, *Place*, *Manner*, and *Cause*.

542. These adverbial sentences, though chiefly used as extensions of the predicate, are not, of course, confined exclusively to this position, but may take the place of an adverb, in any position.

ABRIDGMENT OF COMPLEX SENTENCES.

543. Complex Sentences may often be abridged into Simple Sentences.

544. The NOUN, ADJECTIVE, and ADVERBIAL Sentence, when abridged, takes the form either of a *noun, adjective, adverb,* or *prepositional infinitive* or *participial* phrase; for example,

COMPLEX SENTENCE.	ABRIDGED TO SIMPLE SENTENCE.
NOUN.	
"I knew *that he thought so.*"	"I knew *his opinion.*"
"I know *that he is a good mechanic.*"	"I know him *to be a good mechanic.*"
"*That he is poor* is no crime."	"*His being poor* is no crime."
ADJECTIVE.	
"Our house *which is in the country.*"	"Our *country* house."
"The book *which contains the story.*"	"The book *containing the story.*"
"A book *that may suit you.*"	"A book *to suit you.*"
ADVERBIAL.	
"You will not succeed *where you are.*"	"You will not succeed *there.*"
"You will suffer cold if *you remain here.*"	"You will suffer cold *by remaining here.*"
"*When I had succeeded* I returned."	"*Having succeeded* I returned."
"I have come *that I may assist you.*"	"I have come *to assist you.*"
"*When you finish the work* you may return."	"Having finished the work you may return."

COMPOUND SENTENCE.

545. A compound sentence consists of two or more principal propositions co-ordinate with each other.

546. When two sentences are so related to each other as to form one thought, each however, being in a measure independent of the other, they are said to be co-ordinately connected.

547. The relation in which co-ordinate sentences stand to each other are almost as various as the words used to connect them; they may all, however, be embraced under the four general heads of *copulative*, *disjunctive*, *adversative*, and *casual* or *illative* co-ordination.

COPULATIVE CO-ORDINATION.

548. When the words used to connect prepositions unite their meaning, as the sign (+) plus unites quantities the co-ordination is COPULATIVE.

549. Co-ordinate sentences are connected COPULATIVELY by the *additive* conjunctions, or words used as additive conjunctions.

550. The following are the usual copulative connectives:—*and, also, likewise, as well as, moreover, furthermore, both....and also, not only....but*, and sometimes *nor* and *neither;* as, "The way was long *and* the wind was cold." "*Not only* will I not go myself, *but* I will not consent to your going." "You cannot fully understand it without seeing it, *nor* can you see it and not understand it."

551. Sometimes the connective is omitted between sentences thus related to each other; as, "The woods are hushed, the waters rest, the lake is dark and still."

DISJUNCTIVE CO-ORDINATION.

552. When the words used to connect the propositions indicate that each is to be taken separately, or that one is to be taken to the exclusion of the others, the co-ordination is DISJUNCTIVE.

553. Co ordinate sentences are connected DISJUNCTIVELY by the distributive or alternative conjunctions.

The following are the usual Disjunctive connectives :—*either, or, neither, nor ; otherwise, else ;* as, "We must press forward *or* we will be late." "*Either* the Principal *or* his assistant will be there" "Hasten to reform *else* you will be ruined." "Be industrious, *otherwise* you will come to want." "*Neither* the Principal *nor* his assistant was there."

ADVERSATIVE CO-ORDINATION.

554. When the words used to connect two propositions indicate that the one is contrasted with, or opposed to the other, the co-ordination is ADVERSATIVE.

555. Co-ordinate sentences are connected ADVERSATIVELY by the adversative conjunctions.

The following are the usual connectives of this class:—*but, nevertheless, though, although, however, still, notwithstanding, yet, only*, and by the conjunctive phrases, *on the one hand*, and *on the other hand ;* as, "Straws swim on the surface, *but* pearls lie at the bottom." "There is much wealth in the city, *yet* there are many poor people." "He has acted unwisely, *nevertheless* I will assist him." "The unfortunate man died, *notwithstanding* the promise of recovery." "This may not please you, *still* it is the best I can get." "The material is not good, *however*, I will go on with the work." "He is a sensible man *though* he is not a genius."

ILLATIVE CO-ORDINATION.

556. When the words used to connect two propositions indicate that the second stands in some logical relation to the first, the co-ordination is ILLATIVE.

557. The following are the usual illative connectives: *therefore, for, hence, then, and so, accordingly, consequently, wherefore, thereupon ;* as, "The three angles are equal; *therefore* the three sides are equal." "He is not at home; hence, I have deferred my visit." "I heard that the road was very bad ; *and so* I concluded not to go." "You see I am busy ; *then* why do you trouble me?" The connective in such sentences is often omitted ; as, "He is disposed to be uncivil; let him alone." "He is poor ;

deal liberally with him." "Live not in suspense; it is the life of a spider."

ABRIDGMENT OF COMPOUND SENTENCES.

558. It often happens that the different clauses of a Compound Sentence have either the same subject, or the same predicate, or the same object, or the same extensions. In such cases the element which is common to each co-ordinate part is not necessarily repeated. In this way Compound Sentences may be abridged; thus,

COMPOUND SENTENCE.	ABRIDGED FORM.
"Wheat grows well in this land, and baeley grows well in this land."	"Wheat and barley grow well in this land."
"The hurricane tore down trees, and the hurricane overturned houses."	"The hurricane tore down trees and overturned houses."
"He is a wise man, he is a good man, he is a patriotic man."	"He is a wise, good, and patriotic man."
"God sends rain on the evil, and God sends rain on the good."	"God sends rain on the evil and on the good."

559. A variety of contractions may be combined in one sentence.

GRAMMATICAL EQUIVALENTS.

560. The student of the English language, should give special attention to grammatical equivalents, no aspect of the subject is of more practical importance. What is called a command of language is little else than a practical acquaintance with *grammatical equivalents*. We can scarcely write a single paragraph without being required to choose between different forms of expression that are nearly equivalent in meaning. The tasteful English scholar is he who habitually uses the better expression of two equivalents upon perceived grounds of preference. This power can be acquired only by a careful study of equivalent words and expressions, by a familiar acquaintance with the various styles of the best speakers and writers, and by the frequent practice of the art itself.

METHOD OF ANALYZING COMPLEX AND COMPOUND SENTENCES, ORALLY.

561. State whether the sentence is complex or compound, and of how many clauses it consists.

If Complex.

1. Name the principal sentence.

2. Name each subordinate clause and classify it as noun, adjective or adverbial, state what idea the connective expresses, and show the connection with the principal sentence.

3. Analyze each clause as a simple sentence.

If Compound.

1. Name each principal and subordinate clause.

2. Point out the connection of each co-ordinate sentence, and the kind of co-ordination.

3. Classify each subordinate clause, and show its connection.

4. Analyse each clause as a simple sentence.

EXAMPLE OF

COMPLEX SENTENCE ANALYZED.

562. "*The Romans and Albans being on the eve of battle, an agreement was made between them, that three champions should be chosen on each side, by whom the victory should be determined.*"

This is a complex sentence, consisting of one independent phrase, the principal proposition, and two subordinate clauses. The independent phrase is, "*The Romans and Albans being on the eve of battle.*" The principal proposition is, "*An agreement was made between them.*" The first subordinate clause is,—"*That three champions should be chosen on each side,*"—a noun sentence connected by *that*, in apposition with the subject of the principal sentence, "*agreement.*" The second subordinate sentence is,—"*By whom the victory should be determined,*"—an adjective sentence connected with its noun "*champions,*" by the relative "*whom.*"

EXAMPLE OF

COMPOUND SENTENCE ANALYZED.

563. "*Baliol was now dead, and his son was a prisoner in the tower; but the family was represented by his sister's son who had actively exerted himself in the cause of his country's independence, and was an object of peculiar jealousy to Edward.*"

This is a compound sentence consisting of three principal propositions, and two subordinate. The first principal is, "*Baliol was now dead;*" co-ordinate with the second and third. The second is, "*And his son was a prisoner in the tower;*" copulative to the first and co-ordinate with the third. The third principal is "*But the family was represented by his sister's son;*" adversative to the first and second. The first subordinate is, "*Who had actively exerted himself in the cause of his country's independ-*

ence.' An adjective sentence co-ordinate with the second subordinate, and connected with its noun *son* by the relative "*who.*" The second subordinate is, "*And was an object of peculiar jealousy to Edward.*" An adjective sentence, copulative to first subordinate and connected with its noun son, by the relative "who" understood.

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564. FORMS FOR WRITTEN EXERCISES IN ANALYZING COMPLEX AND COMPOUND SENTENCES.

COMPLEX.

"O could I worship aught beneath the skies,
That earth hath seen, or fancy could devise,
Thine altar, sacred Liberty, should stand,
Built by no mercenary vulgar hand,
With fragrant turf, and flowers as wild and fair,
As ever dressed a bank, or scented summer air."

Sentence.	Kind of Sentence and Connection.	Subject.	Predicate.		
			Verb.	Object.	Extension
a O could I worship aught beneath the skies,	Adv. sentence to *e*.	I	could worship	aught beneath the skies.	
b (that) earth hath seen,	Adj. sentence, to object in *a*, co-ord. with *c*.	earth	hath seen	that	
c (or) fancy could devise,	Adj. sentence to object. in *a*. disj. to *b*.	(or) fancy	could devise	that	
d sacred Liberty,	Independent element.				
e thine altar, built by no mercenary vulgar hand, with fragrant turf, and flowers as wild and fair, should stand,	Principal sentence.	thine altar, built by no mercenary vulgar hand with fragrant turf and flowers as wild and fair	should stand		
f as (those are)	Adv. sentence to "as wild and fair" in *e*, with sub. and pred understood, co-or. with *h*.	those	are		
g (that) ever dressed a bank,	Adj. sentence to subj. of *f*, with subj. underst'd	that	dressed	a bank	ever.
h or (as those are)	Adv. sent. to "as wild and fair," with sub., pred. and connect. underst'd, disj. to *f*.	those	are		
i (that) ever scented summer air.	Adj. sentence to subj. of *h*, with subj. underst'd	that	scented.	summer air.	ever.

"They ravaged the country and were successful in many an enterprise; but their success diminished their caution, and being drawn into an ambuscade by their desire to capture a herd of cattle which had been sent out on purpose, they were surrounded by the enemy and cut to pieces."

Sentence.	Kind of Sentence and Connection.	Subject.	Predicate.		
			Verb.	Object.	Extension.
a They ravaged the country	Principal sentence, co-ord. with *b*.	they	ravaged	the country	
b and were successful in many an enterprise,	Principal sentence, cop. to *a*, and co-ord. with *c*, sub. understood.	they	were successful		in many an enterprise.
c but their success diminished their caution,	Principal sentence, advers. to *a* and *b*, co-ord. with *d* and *e*.	their success	diminished	their caution.	
d And being drawn into an ambuscade by their desire to capture a herd of cattle, they were surrounded by the enemy	Principal sentence, cop. to *c*, co-ord. with *c*.	they being drawn into an ambuscade by their desire to capture a herd of cattle	were surrounded.		by the enemy
e and cut to pieces,	Principal sentence, with sub. and auxil. understood, cop. to *d*.	they	were cut to pieces.		
f which had been sent out on purpose.	Adj. sentence to (*herd* in) *d*.	which	had been sent out.		on purpose.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

COMPLEX AND COMPOUND SENTENCES.

What is a Complex Sentence?—Give an example. What is a noun sentence?—Give an example of a noun sentence used as the subject—as the direct objective—as the indirect objective—as the predicative nominative—in apposition—as the indirect object of an adjective. What is the usual connective of the noun sentence? When the noun sentence is an indirect question, what are the connectives?—Illustrate by an example of each. Show by examples how the clauses connected by *what*, *whatever*, &c., may be treated as noun sentences.

What is an adjective sentence? Give an example of an adjective sentence qualifying the subject,—the object; qualifying a noun attached to the subject,—attached to the predicate. What are the usual connectives of the adjective sentence? What other words may be used? Give an example of an adjective sentence connected by *who*—by *what*—by *that*—by *wherein*—*why*—*where*—*whose*.

What is an adverbial sentence? Repeat the connectives of adverbial sentences. Into what four classes are they divided? Repeat those relating to time *when*—those relating to *duration* of time—those relating to *repetition* of time.—Give examples of each: Repeat those relating to place. Repeat those relating to manner. Separate them into those expressing likeness—relation—effect.—Give an example of each. Repeat those relating to cause. Separate them into those expressing *ground*—*condition*—*concession*—*purpose*. Give examples of each. With what connectives do these different adverbial sentences correspond in number and kind? Give an example to show how a noun, adjective or adverbial sentence may be abridged into a word or into a phrase. Give examples to show how a noun, adjective or adverb may be expanded into a phrase or sentence.

What is a compound sentence? Give an example of a compound sentence. When are sentences co-ordinately connected? Co-ordinate connection is of how many kinds? Repeat them. When is the co-ordination copulative? By what words are co-ordinate sentences connected copulatively? Repeat them, and give an example illustrating the use of each. When is the co-ordination disjunctive? By what words are co-ordinate sentences connected disjunctively? Repeat them and give an example illustrating the use of each. When is the co-ordination adversative? By what words are co-ordinate sentences connected adversatively? Repeat them and give an example illustrating the use of each. When is the co-ordination illative? Repeat the words used to connect co-ordinate sentences illatively. Give an example illustrating the use of each.

How are compound sentences abridged? Illustrate by example.

What is said of the importance of an acquaintance with grammatical equivalents. Give the order of analyzing complex sentences orally. Give the order of analyzing compound sentences orally. Sketch on the blackboard and explain the form for written exercises in analyzing complex and compound sentences. Illustrate the manner of using it, by writing out the detailed analysis of a compound and complex sentence.

DIRECTIONS FOR MORE MINUTE AND EXHAUSTIVE ANALYSIS.

1. Read a paragraph, and be sure that you clearly and fully comprehend it. If it is expressed not in the most ordinary manner, show how it has been raised (by equivalent expressions, arrangement, ellipsis, repitition, &c., figures, versification,) from the plain, logical sense and order, to the rhetorical. Next show how the sense has been brought out to the best advantage by the aid of punctuation and of capital letters.

2. Read the first sentence. Is it *simple, complex*, or *compound?* Is it *declarative, interrogative, imperative, exclamatory*, or a composite of these? consisting of what members, and how connected? If *complex*, find the *principal* clause, by considering carefully what it was that was *chiefly* to be said; (in exclamatory, imperative, or interrogative sentences, the principal clause is generally more easily found by imagining them to be declarative;) and *dispose of all the rest of the sentence as mere noun, adverbial or adjective modifications.* Every clause that can not be treated as a modifying element, must be considered as a coördinate clause; and when two clauses so modify each other that it can not be told which is the principal, the two may be treated as *mutually dependent*, or as *correlative.*

Begin with the distinct clauses or independent phrases; take not more than is sufficient for one analysis; invert parts, if necessary, and supply whatever words are needed; and then state what kind of clause it is, connected by what—(word, simple succession, incorporated into the sentence)—to what, as a coördinate or as a subordinate element; and, if subordinate, whether it performs the office of a substantive, an adjective, or an adverb.

3. Analyze the sub-parts; then take the next clause, and proceed in a similar manner, and so on until the sentence is exhausted. A series of finite verbs, however long or modified, should generally be treated as *one* predicate, if not parted by a nominative expressed. By doing so, the process of analysis will be much symplified. The same remark applies to a series of nominatives. When the sentence is analyzed, *parse* the words according to the Formulas heretofore given; that is, mention the part of speech, the kind, the properties, the relations to other words, the Rule.

This is the analysis of words, viewed as *constructive elements of sentences.* They may, after they are parsed, be further analyzed and described as follows:—

Tell whether primitive, derivative, or compound; from what derived, of what compounded; the radical, the prefix, the suffix, their meaning, euphonic changes; the primary meaning, and thence by what figure or figures you arrive at the meaning of the word as used in the paragraph before you; mention the conjugates; the synonyms, and how it differs from them; tell, if compound, why it is hyphened or consolidated. Is the word the best the author could have used?

4 Tell whether a monosyllable, dissyllable, etc.; which syllable has the chief accent, and which the weaker; whether the word is of Saxon origin, of Latin, Greek, French, etc.; whether it is harsh, soft, imitative, familiar, uncommon, popular, technical, etc.

5. VERSE, *as such, may be analyzed and described thus:*—

Say that is *verse*, and why; tell whether it is *blank* verse or *rhyming* verse, and why; whether composed in couplets, triplets, or stanzas; how many lines to the stanza, how they rhyme together, and—if it has a name—what is the stanza called; of how many and what feet does each line consist, and to what does it rhyme. with what sort of rhyme; what licenses or deviations.

When any word or expression, of such a mongrel or peculiar nature occurs, that no principle of grammar applies directly to it, it will be sufficient simply to show its use in the sentence; that is, its meaning, and its relation to the other parts.

COMPLEX AND COMPOUND SENTENCES.

FOR PRACTICE IN ANALYSIS.

23RD EXERCISE.

565. Analyze the following sentences according to Form (pages 159 and 160.)

1.

"And yet, if I had no plea, but my undeserved misery—a once powerful prince, the descendant of a race of illustrious monarchs, now, without any fault of my own, destitute of every support, and reduced to the necessity of begging foreign assistance, against an enemy who has seized my throne and my kingdom; if my unequalled distresses were all I had to plead, it would become the greatness of the Roman commonwealth, to protect the injured, and to check the triumph of daring wickedness over helpless innocence."—*Sallust.*

2.

"But rise, and stand upon thy feet; for I have appeared to thee for this purpose, to make thee a minister, and a witness, both of these things which thou hast seen, and of those things in which I will appear to thee; delivering thee from the people, and from the Gentiles, to whom I now send thee, to open their eyes, and to turn them from darkness to light, and from the power of Satan to God; that they may receive forgiveness of sins, and inheritance amongst them who are sanctified by faith that is in me."—*Acts* xxvi. 16.

3.

"Time will render him more open to the dictates of reason; for as a fresh wound shrinks back from the hand of the surgeon, but by degrees submits to, and even requires the means of its cure; so a mind, under the first impression of misfortune, shuns and rejects all arguments of consolation, but at length, if applied with tenderness, calmly and willingly acquiesces in them."—*Melmoth's Pliny.*

4.

"Though a man has all other perfections, yet if he wants discretion, he will be of no great consequence in the world; on the contrary, if he has this single talent in perfection, and but a common share of others, he may do what he pleases in his particular station of life."—*Addison.*

5.

"Let us be animated to cultivate those amiable virtues, which are here recommended to us: this humility and meekness; this penitent sense of sin; this ardent desire after righteousness; this comparison and purity; this peacefulness and fortitude of soul; and, in a word, this universal goodness which becomes us, as we sustain the character of 'the salt of the earth,' and 'the light of the world.'"—*Doddridge.*

6.

"Happy would the poor man think himself, if he could enter on all the treasures of the rich; and happy for a short time he might be; but before he had long contemplated and admired his state, his possessions would seem to lessen, and his cares would grow."—*Blair.*

7.

"From all this it follows, that in order to discern where man's true honor lies, we must look, not to any adventitious circumstances of fortune; nor to any single sparkling quality; but to the whole of what forms a man; what entitles him, as such, to rank high among that class of beings to which he belongs; in a word, we must look to the mind and the soul."—*Blair.*

8.

"O sacred solitude; divine retreat!
Choice of the prudent! envy of the great!
By thy pure stream, or in thy waving shade,
We court fair wisdom, that celestial maid:
The genuine offspring of her lov'd embrace,
(Strangers on earth,) are innocence and peace.

9.

"I have found out a gift for my fair;
I have found where the wood pigeons breed;
But let me that plunder forbear!
She will say, 'tis a barbarous deed:
For he ne'er can be true, she aver'd,
Who can rob a poor bird of its young:
And I lov'd her the more, when I heard
Such tenderness fall from her tongue."

10.

"Thou also mad'st the night,
Maker Omnipotent, and thou the day,
Which we, in our appointed work employ'd,
Have finished, happy in our mutual help,
And mutual love, the crown of all our bliss
"Ordained by thee; and this delicious place,
For us too large, where thy abundance wants
Partakers, and uncropt falls to the ground."—*Milton.*

11.

"Know then—who bow the early knee,
Who wisely, when Temptation waits,
Elude her frauds, and spurn her baits;
Who dare to own my injur'd cause,
Though fools deride my sacred laws;
Or scorn to deviate to the wrong,
Though persecution lifts her thong;
Though all the sons of hell conspire
To raise the stake and light the fire;
Know, that for *such* superior souls,
There lies a bliss beyond the poles:
Where spirits shine with purer ray,
And brighten to meridian day;
Where love, where boundless friendship rules;
(No friends that change, no love that cools;)
Where rising floods of knowledge roll,
And pour, and pour upon the soul!"—*Cotton.*

12.

"Nor these alone, whose notes
Nice finger'd art must emulate in vain,
But cawing rooks, and kites that swim sublime,
In still repeated circles, screaming loud;
The jay, the pye, and ev'n the boding owl,
That hails the rising moon, have charms for me."—*Cowper.*

13.

"'Tis night, and the landscape is lovely no more:
I mourn; but, ye woodlands, I mourn not for you;
For morn is approaching, your charms to restore,
Perfum'd with fresh fragrance, and glitt'ring with dew:
Nor yet for the ravage of winter I mourn;
Kind nature the embroyo blossom will save:
But when shall spring visit the mouldering urn!
O when shall day dawn on the night of the grave!"—*Beattie.*

14.

"Lo, the poor Indian! whose untutor'd mind
Sees God in clouds, or hears him in the wind,
His soul proud science never taught to stray
Far as the Solar Walk or Milky Way,
Yet, simple nature to his hope has giv'n,
Behind the cloud-topt hill, a humbler heav'n,
Some safer world in depths of wood embraced,
Some happier island in the wat'ry waste;
Where slaves once more their native land behold,
No fiends torment, no chrisians thirst for gold."—*Pope.*

LAWS OF SYNTAX.

566. Words are arranged in sentences, according to certain rules founded on the practice of the best writers of the language, called RULES OF SYNTAX.

567. The Syntax of sentences is best presented under four heads, viz.; *Construction, Concord, Government,* and *Position.*

568. CONSTRUCTION is the dependent relation of words, phrases, and clauses, according to the sense.

569. CONCORD is the agreement which one word has with another in gender, person, number, case, &c.

570. GOVERNMENT is the power which one word has in determining the mood, tense, case, or form, of another word. The word governed by another word is called its *regimen*.

571. Position is the place which a word occupies in relation to other words in a sentence.

572. In the English language, which has but few inflections, the *position* of words is often of the utmost importance, in determining the construction.

GENERAL RULE.

573. *In every sentence, the words employed, and the order in which they are arranged, should be such as clearly and properly to express the idea intended; and, at the same time, all the parts of the sentence should correspond, and a regular and dependent construction be preserved throughout.*

574. This may be regarded as a general rule, directed against errors of every kind, and, therefore, comprehending not only all that may be embraced in the rules that follow, but also, all instances of impropriety in the use, or arrangement, or connection of words, for the avoiding or correcting of which no very specific rule can be given.

Among the evils to be guarded against, under this general rule, are the following:—

I. Using *too many* words: that is, words not necessary to express the sense intended.

II. Using *too few* words: that is, omitting words really necessary to express the sense intended.

III. A *bad choice* of words: that is, using words in a sense not sanctioned by good writers, or which do not correctly or properly convey the idea intended, or which may convey *another* with equal propriety.

IV. Employing *improper forms* of the words to be used.

V. The arrangement of words, phrases or clauses in such a way, that their true construction is doubtful, or ambiguous.

VI. Using injudiciously, or too frequently, the third person of pronouns, especially in indirect discourse.

FALSE SYNTAX UNDER THE GENERAL RULE.

EXHIBITING THE ERRORS SPECIFIED.

24TH EXERCISE.

NO NEEDLESS WORD SHOULD BE USED.

In the following, correct what is wrong, and give the reason for the correction:—

She is a poor widow woman. He died in less than two hours time. His two sisters were both of them well educated. I bought it of the bookseller, *him* who lives opposite. You will never have another such a chance. There are but a few *other* similar places in the city. It is *equally* as good as the other. Mine is

equally as good as yours. Who *first* discovered America? When the world was *first* created, &c. Perseverance in laudable pursuits will reward all our toils, and *will* produce effects beyond our calculation. This is taught by Plato; but it is taught still better by Solomon *than by him*. *Most* is annexed to *the end of* these words. Our flowers are covered *over*. I was not able *for* to do it. My father presented me with a *new* knife. It is to this last feature of the game laws, *to which* we intend to confine our notice.—*Sidney Smith*. The performance was approved *of* by all who saw it. Whenever he sees me, he *always* inquires after my health. This barbarous custom, *and* which prevailed everywhere, the missionaries have abolished.

25TH EXERCISE.

In the following, correct what is wrong, and give the reason for the correction:—

If I mistake not, I *think* I have seen you before. These lots, if they had been sold sooner, *they* would have brought a better price. These wild horses having been once captured, *they* were soon tamed. I don't know *nothing* about your affairs; and I don't want to know. Neither you nor *nobody* else can walk ten miles in one hour. The *lesser* quantity I remove to the other side. Santa Anna now assumed the title of *a* Dictator. What kind of *a* man is he? What sort of *a* thing is it? The whites of America are *the* descendants of *the* Europeans. There is another and *a* better world. My friend was married to a sensible and *an* amiable woman. Fire is a better servant than *a* master. I am a better arithmetician than *a* grammarian. The terror of the Spanish and *the* French monarchies.—*Bolingbroke*. Pharaoh and his host pursued *after* them. Many talented men have deserted *from* the party. A catalogue of the children *of* the public schools of this city has been published. One can not imagine what a monotonous being one becomes if one constantly remains turning one's self in the circle of one's favorite notions.

26TH EXERCISE.

NO NECESSARY WORD SHOULD BE OMITTED.

In the following, correct what is wrong, and give the reason for the correction:—

White sheep are much more common than black. He does not know you better than John.—(Ambiguous.) A squirrel can climb a tree quicker than a boy.—*Webster.* Ignorance is the mother of fear as well as admiration. What prevents us going? What use is it to me? My business prevented me attending the last meeting. The court of France or England was to be the umpire. Let us consider the works of nature and art, with proper attention. An officer on European and on Indian service are in very different situations.—*S. Smith.*—Supply *service* and *one.*) The freight was added to, and very much increased, my expenses. The money has not been used for the purpose it was appropriated. I shall persuade others to take the same measures for their cure that I have. No man can be more wretched than I.—(Supply *am.*) They either have or will write to us about the matter. Money is scarce, and times hard.—(Supply *are.*) The winter is departing, and the wild-geese flying northward. This must be my excuse for seeing a letter which neither inclination nor time prompted me to.—*Washington.* We ought not speak evil of others, unless it is necessary. Please excuse my son for absence yesterday. How do you like up here? We like right well up here. The Indians are descendants of the aborigines of this country.

27TH EXERCISE.

In the following, correct what is wrong, and give the reason for the correction:—

The white and black inhabitants amount to several thousands. The sick and wounded were left at this place. He thinks he knows more than anybody. Noah and his family outlived all the people who lived before the flood. In no case are writers so apt to err as in the position of the word *only.*—*Maunder.* Neither my house nor orchard was injured.—(Supply *my.*) Not the use,

but abuse, of worldly things, is sinful. You must either be quiet, or must leave the room. Such a relation as ought to subsist between a principle and accessory. A man may be rich by chance, but can not be good or wise without effort. She possesses more sense, more accomplishments, and beauty than the other. He is a man of sagacity, experience, and of honesty. By industry, by economy, and good luck, he soon acquired a fortune. There is no man knows better how to make money. It was this induced me to send for you. She saw at once what was best to do. This is a position I condemn, and must be better established to gain the faith of any one. Will martial flames forever fire thy mind, and never, never, be to heaven resigned? By the exercising our judgement it is improved. A wise man will avoid the shewing any excellence iu trifles. Great benefit may be derived from reading of good books.

28TH EXERCISE.

Correct what is wrong, and give the reason for the correction:—

We had laid on the ground all night. Are you going to go? I ain't going yet. I calculate to invest my money in something else. The nurse sat him in a chair. Can you learn me to write? The business will suit any one who enjoys bad health. Who did you see at the concert? I expect it rained here yesterday. The garment was neatly sown. We suspect the trip will afford us great pleasure. The thief illuded the police. He was much affected by the news. A verb ought to agree with its subject in number and person. Write for me no more, for I will certainly——. He has made one crop of wheat. He throwed the ball. He was drownded. Wast thou chopping wood? A drive into the country delighteth and invigorates us. It was me that told him. She said our noise and romping must be put a stop to. He was found fault with, and taken hold of. Weights and measures are now attempted to be established. She is getting the

better of her sickness. Since you have made the first you may *do* the rest. No one ever sustained such mortification as I have done to day. A poet can rise higher than a public speaker can do.—*Blair.* Her stupidness soon appeared. I thought she treated me with negligence. Take either of the five.

29TH EXERCISE.

Correct what is wrong; and give the reason for the correction:—

Any one of the two roads will take you to town. Mankind resembles each other most in the beginning of society. That very point which we are now discussing was lately decided in the supreme court. These very men with whom you travelled yesterday, are now in jail. It all tends to show that our whole plans have been discovered. These evils were caused by Catiline, who, if he had been punished, the republic would not have been exposed to such great dangers. He is seldom or ever here. He said nothing farther. Such cloaks were in fashion five years since. I saw him about five weeks since. Do like I did. A dipthong is when two vowels are united. Fusion is when a solid is converted into a liquid by heat. She is such a good woman.—He is such a great man there is no speaking to him. Whether it can be proved or no, is not the thing. —*Butler.* Go, and see if father has come. Tell me if we are going to have but one session to-day. By personification, things are treated as though they were hearers. There is no doubt but what he is mistaken. I have no doubt but you can help him.—*Dr. Johnson.* I am surprised how you could do such a thing. There is no question but the universe has certain bounds to it. He is not so tired but what he can whistle. O fairest flower, no sooner blown but blasted!—*Milton.*

30TH EXERCISE.

Correct what is wrong; and give the reason for the correction:—

The loafer seems to be created for no other purpose

but to keep up the ancient order of idleness.—*Irving.* Style is nothing else but that sort of expression which our thoughts most naturally assume.—*Blair.* There is no other umberella here but mine. Scarcely had he uttered the word *than* the fairy disappeared. The donation was the more acceptable, that it was given without solicitation. Do not let the dog come in the house. His case has no resemblance with mine. The soil is adapted for wheat and corn. He was accused with having acted unfairly. They spent the summer at the North, in a small village. Far preferable is a cottage with liberty, than splendor with debt. Such were the difficulties with which the question was involved. I was disappointed in the pleasure of meeting you. There is constant hostility between the several tribes of Indians. The greatest masters of critical learning differ among one another. I am looking for reinforcements, which the enemy cannot expect. Each then took hold of one end of the pole, to carry the basket. There is a fresh basket of eggs. I only recited one lesson. (Only what?) Some virtues are only seen in adversity. I shall be happy always to see my friends.

31ST EXERCISE.

Correct what is wrong, and give the reason for the correction:—

He is considered generally honest. They became even grinders of knives and razors. Please to sing the three first stanzas. At that time I wished somebody would hang me a thousand times. A lecture on the methods of teaching geography at ten o'clock. There is a remarkable union in his style of harmony and ease.—*Blair.* They were not such as to fully answer my purpose. We were to cautiously and quickly advance to the hill above. Cedar is not so hard, but more durable, than oak. He *can* and ough *to give* more attention to his business. The reward has already or will hereafter be given to him. We have the power of *retaining,* altering, and compound-lhose images which we have received, *into* all the varie-

ties of posture and image.—*Addison.* Parents are of all other people the worst judges of their children's merits; for what they reckon such, is seldom any else but a repetition of their own faults.—*Addison.* Prepositions, you recollect, connect words as well as conjunctions; how, then, can you tell the one from the other.—*R. C. Smith.* The empire of Blefuscu is an island situated to the north-east side of Lilliput, from whence it is parted only by a channel of eight hundred yards wide.—*Swift.*

32ND EXERCISE.

Correct what is wrong, and give the reason for the correction.

The son said to his father, I have sinned against Heaven.—A farmer went to a lawyer, and told him that his bull had gored his ox.—The Greeks fearing to be surrounded on all sides wheeled about and halted with the river on their backs.—Nor was Philip wanting to corrupt Demosthenes, as he had most of the leading men of Greece.—Parmenio had served, with great fidelity, Philip the father of Alexander, as well as himself, for whom he first opened the way into Asia.—Belisarius was general of all the forces under Justinian the First, a man of rare valor.—Lysias promised his father never to abandon his friends.—Carthage was demolished to the ground so that we are unable to say where it stood, at this day.—Thus ended the war with Antiochus, twelve years after the second Punic war, and two after it had begun.—Claudius was canonized among the gods, who scarcely deserved the name of a man.

33RD EXERCISE.

Correct what is wrong, and give the reason for the correction:—

Every man cannot afford to keep a coach. The two young ladies came to the party nearly dressed alike. I only recited one lesson during the whole day. I have borrowed this horse only I intend to buy him. The interest not only had been paid, but the greater part of

the principal also. If you have only learned to spend money extravagantly at college you may stay at home. Corn should be generally planted in April. He is thought to be generally honest. I am not as attentive to the studies I even like, as I should be. There is still a shorter method. The front part of the house was very differently built from the back part. We have often opportunities to do good. He wondered that none of the members had never thought of it. There was no bench nor no seat of any kind that was not crowded with people. Neither he nor nobody else ever raised in one year so many bushels on an acre. Neither that nor no such thing was said in my hearing. To refrain from luxury is better than going into debt. This had served to increase instead of alleviating the inflammation. Spelling is easier than to parse or cipher. Does he not behave well, and gets his lessons as well as any boy in school?

34TH EXERCISE.

Correct what is wrong, and give the reason for the correction:—

He was either misunderstood, or represented in a false light. My friend is returned. All the flowers are perished. You had better have left those wasps alone. If the hand is removed, the air immediately fill the vessel. Though he be poor and helpless now, you may rest assured that he will not remain so. Our teacher told us that the air had weight. I have always thought that little was ever gained by marrying for wealth. 'Tis so; myself has seen it. The molassus are excellent. Paying visits will be losing time. The common saying of every one's being the architect of his own fortune is hardly true. You have behaved very bad. Previous to our arrival the captain was taken ill. There we saw some fellows digging gold from China. He went to see his friends on horseback. In every church it must be admitted there are some unworthy members. It was in vain to remonstrate. What use is it to me? She could not refrain shedding tears. Ignorance is the mother of

fear, as well as admiration. He is a man of sagacity, experience, and of honesty. I cannot conceive how my horse got away without somebody untied him. He was dismissed, not so much because he was too young, but because he was too unskillful.

35TH EXERCISE.

Correct what is wrong, and give the reason for the correction:—

Do you know if the mail has arrived? At the time that I saw her she was young and beautiful. He has no love nor veneration for his superiors. He could not deny but what he borrowed the money. She thinks of little else but dressing and visiting. The farm will then either be rented or sold. It happened one day he went out of curiosity to see the great Duke's lions. The important relations of masters and servants, and husbands and wives, and brothers and sisters, and friends and citizens. A dipthong is when two vowels are united in one sound. A deed of trust is a deed where the lender has power to to sell to secure himself. He should not marry a woman in high life that has no money. A man has no right to judge another who is a party concerned. John told James that his horse had run away. The lord cannot refuse to admit the heir of his tenant upon his death, nor can he remove his present tenant so long as he lives. The law is inoperative, which is not right. It is not to the point what he said. There was no profit, though ever so small, in anything, but what he took pains to obtain it. He has never preached that I have heard of.

SPECIAL SYNTAX.

NOMINATIVE.

576. RULE I.—*The subject of a finite verb is put in the nominative;* as, "*I* am," —"*Thou* art,"—"*He* is,"—"*They* are."

577. It is improper to use both a noun and its pronoun in the same proposition, as the nominative to the same verb; thus, "The *king he* is just," should be "The king is just." Except when the

compound pronouns are added to the subject for the sake of emphasis; as "The *king himself* has come."

578. The nominative to a verb in the imperative, and in the answer to a question, and after *than* or *as*, generally has the verb understood; as "Shut the door"—"*Who* said so?"—"He [said so]"—"James is taller than *I* [am]; but not so tall as *you* [are]."

POSITION OF THE SUBJECT.

579. The subject is commonly placed before the verb. But in imperative or interrogative sentences, and in other sentences for the sake of emphasis or euphony, the subject is often placed after the verb; as, "Go *thou*"—"Did *he* go?"—"May *you* be happy!"—"Were *I* he"—"Neither did *They*"—"Said *I*"—"There was *a man*," &c.

580. Under this rule there is liability to error, only in the use of pronouns.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

NOMINATIVE CASE.

1. Repeat the rule of Syntax to be applied in parsing the *subject* of a verb. 2. What principle is violated in the sentence,—"*The king he is just.*" 3. What exceptions are there to this principle. 4. Give examples. 5. Under what circumstances is the subject of the verb generally understood. 6. Give examples. 7. Under what circumstances is the subject generally placed after the verb? 8. Give examples.

THE EXERCISES UNDER THE RULES.

EXPLANATION.

In the following Exercises, under the rules, some of the sentences are correct and some incorrect. They are purposely mixed that the judgment of the pupil may be exercised and his knowledge tested. If, after going over the rules and principles to which the exercise has reference, the pupil can so far apply his knowledge as to distinguish between what is correct and what is incorrect and produce the proper rule as authority for his conclusion, the result is satisfactory. If he cannot do this, it is obvious that he has not yet acquired sufficient knowledge of the subject to be of any practical use to him; the only wise and proper course, in such a case, will be to go over the ground again.

36TH EXERCISE.

NOMINATIVE CASE.

In the following, say which are correct, and which are incorrect. State distinctly the principle violated in the false syntax,

and correct it. Give the construction of the words to which the rule applies, and repeat the rule applicable to each word.

For a written exercise on the rules, place the number of each sentence in the margin of the exercise paper, and place opposite each the number of the principle that applies to it, and prepare to repeat the principle indicated by the number without referring to the book.

1. Him and me are of the same age.—2. John is older than me.—3. Suppose you and I go.—4. You are as tall as she.—5. Them are excellent.—6. Who has a knife? Me.—7. Whom do you think has arrived?—8. Who came in? She and I.—9. Them that seek wisdom shall find it.—10. You can write as well as me.—11. You and we enjoy many privileges.—12. That is the boy whom we think deserves the prize.

WRITTEN EXERCISE.—Place the number attached to each principle under this rule in the margin of your exercise paper, and write, opposite each number, a sentence which shall contain an example of a violation of the principle, and immediately under it a correct example.

APPOSITION.

581. RULE II.—A noun or pronoun, introduced merely to identify or explain another noun or pronoun, is put, by *apposition*, in the same case; as,

"*Cicero* the *orator*."—"*I Paul* have written it."—"*We, the people* of the United States."—"*Ye woods* and *wilds*."—"This was said to *us men*."—"The *river Thames*."—"*Jane* and *Eliza*, Mary's *cousins*."—"The *chief* of the princes, *he* who defied the enemy," &c.—"That was related of *Dr. West, him* who translated Pindar."

582. A plural term is sometimes used in apposition after two or more substantives singular, *to combine and give them emphasis;* as, "*Time, labor, money, all* were lost." Sometimes the same substantive is repeated for the sake of emphasis; as, "*Cisterns*, broken *cisterns*."

583. Distributive words are sometimes put in apposition with a plural substantive; as, "*They* went *each* of them on his way."—"*They* all went, *some* one way, and *some* another." In the construction of a sentence, the distributive word is sometimes omit-

ted; as, "*They* [interrogative pronouns] do not relate [*each*] to a preceding noun."

584. Of this character are such expressions as the following: "*They* stood in *each other's* way"—that is, *they* stood *each* in the other's way.—"*They* love *one another*"—that is *they* love, *one* (loves) *another*.

585. A substantive is sometimes connected with another in a sort of apposition by the word *as*, meaning *in the condition of, in the capacity of*, thus, "*Cicero*, as an *orator*, was bold—as a *soldier*, he was timid." But the substantive placed thus in apposition with another in the possessive case, or with a possessive, is *without* the sign, while in other instances it usually has it; as, "JOHN'S reputation as an *author* was great—HIS fame as an *artist* still greater."

586. In designating time and place, instead of a noun in apposition, the preposition *of* with its case is often used; as, "The *month of August*."—"The *State of Ohio*."—"The *City of New York*."

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

APPOSITION.

1. What is the rule for the case of a noun or pronoun in apposition? 2. In the sentence, "*Time, labor, money, all* were lost," what principle applies to "*all*"? 3. What principle applies to "*each*," in the sentence,—"They went *each* of them his own way?" 4. What is the construction of "*each* and *another*" in the sentences,—"They stood in *each* other's way,"—"They love one *another*?" 5. In the sentence,—"Cicero as an *orator* was bold;" what principle applies to the construction of the word "*orator*?" 6. When the noun following "*as*" is in apposition with a possessive does it take the possessive form? 7. Give an example. 8. Instead of a noun in apposition, what is sometimes used in designating time and place? 9. Give an example.

37TH. EXERCISE.

APPOSITION.

In the following sentences, say which are correct and which are incorrect. State distinctly the principle violated in the false Syntax, and correct it. Give the construction of all the words to which the rule or any note is applicable, and repeat the rule. Do the written exercise, as directed under Rule 1st.

1. Please give that book to my brother, William, he who stands by the window. 2. I speak of Virgil, he who wrote the Æneid. 3. I refer to the man of honor,

he who resists wrong. 4. Religion, the support of adversity, adorns prosperity. 5. Do you speak so to me, I who have so often befriended you? 6. Byron, the poet, the only son of Captain John Byron, was born in 1788. 7. The gentleman has arrived, him whom I mentioned before. 8. Coleridge, a remarkable man, and rich imaginative poet, was the friend of Wordsworth. 9. My brother William's estate has been sold. 10. "And on the palace floor, a lifeless corpse she lay."

WRITTEN EXERCISE.—Place the number attached to each principle under this rule, in the margin of your exercise paper, and write, opposite each number, a sentence which shall contain an example of a violation of the principle, and immediately under it a correct example. Do this at the close of each succeeding exercise.

SAME CASE.

587. RULE III.—Intransitive verbs, and verbs in the passive voice, take the *same case* after them as before them, when both words refer to the same person or thing; as:—

"It is *I*"—"He shall be called *John*"—"She walks a *queen*"—"I took it to be *him*"—"He seems to be a *scholar*"—"The opinion is, *that he will live.*"

POSITION.

588. The usual position of the predicate substantive is after the verb, as that of the subject is before it, and this is always the order of construction. But, in both the direct and the indirect question, and in inverted sentences, the place of the predicate substantive is often different; thus, "WHO is *he?*"—"We know not WHO *he* is"—"Is *he* a STUDENT?"—"He is the same THAT *he* was"—"The DOG *it* was that died"—"A MAN *he* was to all the country dear"—"FEET was *I* to the lame"—"Far other SCENE is *Thrasymenè* now."—"Are they friends?"—"Friends they cannot be."

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

SAME CASE.

1. What is the rule for nouns and pronouns coming after verbs, taking the same case as the nouns or pronouns before them? 2. Illustrate by an example. 3. Under what circumstances does the predicate substantive, sometimes come, not after the verb, but before it? 4. Give examples.

21st EXERCISE.

SAME CASE.

In the following, say which are correct and which incorrect; state distinctly the principle violated in the false syntax, and correct it; give the construction of all the words to which the rule applies, and repeat the rule. Do the written exercise as directed under Rule 1st.

1. It is I. 2. Whom do you think he is? 3. It was me who wrote the letter, and him who carried it to the post-office. 4. Who do you think him to be? 5. I am sure it could not have been she. 6. Whom do men say that I am? 7. It is them, you said, who deserve most blame. 8. She is the person whom I understood it to be. 9. You would probably do the same thing if you were he. 10. He is the man whom you said it was. 11. I understood it to be he. 12. Let him be who he may. 13. It may have been him, but there is no proof of it. 14. Can you tell whom that man is? 15. If I were he, I would go abroad at once. 16. Is it not him who you thought it was? 17. I little thought it had been him. 18. Thomas knew not who it was that called, though quite certain it was not she whom we saw yesterday. 19. It is not I you are in love with. 20. Let the same be her whom thou hast appointed for thy servant Isaac. 21. Art thou proud yet? 22. He was not the person whom he affected to be. 23. Ay, and that I am not thee.

Written Exercise.—Place the number attached to each principle under this rule in the margin of your exercise paper, and write, opposite each number, a sentence which shall contain an example of a violation of the principle, and immediately under it a correct example.

THE POSSESSIVE.

589. RULE IV.—*A noun or pronoun used to limit another noun or pronoun, by denoting possession, is put in the possessive case;* as, "*Virtue's reward*"—"*John's books.*"

590. The possessive case, and the preposition *of* with the objective, are often equivalent; as, "My *father's* house"—"The house *of my father.*

591. Sometimes the idea expressed by *of* with the objective can not be expressed at all by the possessive; as, "A ring *of gold*"—"A cup *of water*"—"A piece *of land*"—"The house *of refuge*," &c. Sometimes, again, the ideas expressed are different; thus, "The *Lord's* day" means the Sabbath. "The day *of the Lord*" means the day of judgment. "My *father's* picture," means a picture belonging to my father. "A picture *of my father*" means a portrait of him." "*God's* love" means only the love which God feels. "The love *of God*," means either the love which God feels to us, or that which we feel to him.

592. *Of*, before a possessive case, followed by the substantive which it limits, usually governs that substantive; as, "The heat *of* the sun's *rays*." But *of* before a possessive, *not* followed by the substantive which it limits, governs that substantive understood, and the expression refers to *a part* of the things possessed; as, "A discovery of [that is, from] Sir Isaac Newton's [discoveries];" meaning, "One of Sir Isaac Newton's discoveries."

593. Even when the possessive case, and *of* with the objective, are equivalent in meaning, the arrangement and euphony, as well as the perspicuity of the sentence, will often render the one expression preferable to the other. When this is the case, care should be taken to use that form which, in the circumstances, is best. Thus, "In the name of the army," is better than "In the army's name;" "My mother's gold ring," is better than "The gold ring of my mother." A succession of words in either form is harsh, and may be avoided by a proper mixture of the two; thus, "My brother's wife's sister"—better—"The sister of my brother's wife."—"The sickness of the son of the king"—better—"The sickness of the king's son."

594. When several nouns come together in the possessive case, implying common possession, the sign of the possessive is annexed to the last, and understood to the rest; as, "Jane and Lucy's books," that is, books the common property of Jane and Lucy. But if common possession is not implied, or if several words intervene, the sign of the possessive should be annexed to each, as,

"Jane's and Lucy's books," that is, books, some of which are Jane's and others Lucy's. "This gained the king's, as well as the people's, approbation."

595. When a name is complex, consisting of more terms than one, the sign of the possessive is annexed to the last only; as, "Julius Cæsar's Commentaries"—"John the Baptist's head"—"His brother Philip's wife"—"The Bishop of London's charge."—Here *Julius Cæsar's* is a complex name, in the possessive; *John* and *brother* are in the possessive, without the sign, that being annexed to the words *Baptist* and *Philip*, in apposition. In the last example, "London" is in the objective case, governed by *of*, and the *'s* annexed properly belongs to *Bishop*, which limits the word *charge*. In parsing the words *separately*, the transfer must, of course be so made. But the true reason for annexing *'s* to *London* is, that the whole phrase, "Bishop of London," is regarded as *one term*, in the possessive limiting the word *charge*, and may be so parsed. Thus, "a complex noun in the possessive case, limiting the word *charge*."

596. When a short explanatory term is joined to a name, the sign of the possessive may be annexed to either; as, "I called at Smith's the bookseller," or, "at Smith the bookseller's." But if, to such a phrase, the substantive which it limits is added, the sign of the possessive must be annexed to the last; as, "I called at Smith the bookseller's shop."

597. If the explanatory circumstance be complex, or consists of more terms than one, the sign of the possessive must be annexed to the name or first substantive; as, "This Psalm is David's, the king, priest, and prophet of the people."—"That book is Smith's, the bookseller in Maiden Lane.

598. This mode of expression, however, is never elegant, and though sometimes used when the governing substantive is understood, yet it would be better to avoid it, and say, "This is a psalm of David, the king," &c., or, "This is one of the psalms of David," &c. But an expression like this can not, with any propriety, be used when the substantive limited by the possessive is added. Thus, "David, the king, priest and prophet of the people's psalm," would be intolerable.

597. When two nouns in the possessive are used to limit different words, the sign of the possessive must be annexed to each; as, "He took refuge at the governor's, the king's representative," that is, "at the governor's house."

600. The *s* after the apostrophe is sometimes omitted, when the first word ends, and the following word begins, with an *s*, or when the use of it would occasion a disagreeable repetition of *s* sounds; as, "For righteousness' sake"—"For conscience' sake"—"For Jesus' sake"—"At Jesus' feet." In other cases, such

omissions would generally be improper; as, "James' book"—"Miss' shoes," instead of "James's book"—"Miss's shoes."

601. A clause of a sentence should never come between the possessive case and the word which it limits; thus, "She began to extol the farmer's as she called him, excellent understanding," should be, "the excellent understanding of the farmer, as she called him."

602. A noun limited by the possessive plural, or by two or more nouns severally in the possessive singular, should not be plural unless the sense require it. Thus, "The men's health [not healths] suffered from the climate"—"John's and William's wife [not wives] are of the same age."

603. A noun or pronoun before a participle used as a noun requires the passive form; as much depends on the pupils composing frequently. John's having done so is evident.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

POSSESSIVE CASE.

1. What is the rule for the case of a noun or pronoun placed before another to indicate the owner or possessor of it? 2. How may the ownership be sometimes expressed without using the possessive case? 3. Give an example. 4. Give an example to show that the idea expressed by *of* with its objective is not always equivalent to the possessive. 5. Does "My father's picture" and "A picture of my father" convey the same meaning? 6. What meaning may each convey? 7. Give other similar examples. 8. What does *of* before a possessive not followed by the noun possessed govern; and what does such an expression refer to? 9. Illustrate this by an example. 10. When the possessive case and *of* with the objective are equivalent in meaning, which should be chosen? 11. Illustrate this by an example. 12. When several nouns possessing the same thing in common come together, which takes the sign of the possessive? 13. Illustrate by an example. 14. Under what circumstances should the sign of the possessive be annexed to each? 15. Illustrate by an example. 16. When a name in the possessive is complex, consisting of more terms than one, either in apposition, or connected in any other way, what is the rule for annexing the sign of the possessive? 17. Illustrate this by an example, and explain it in the case of such an expression as "The Bishop of Huron's charge." 18. When a short explanatory term is joined to a noun in the possessive, what is the rule for annexing the sign of the possessive? 19. Illustrate this by an example. 20. What circumstance in connection with this would require the possessive sign to be annexed to the last? 21. Illustrate by an example. 22. If the explana-

tory term annexed to a noun in the possessive is not short, but complex, what is the rule for annexing the sign of the possessive? 23. Illustrate this by an example. 24. What is said of this mode of expression? 25. Under what circumstances cannot an expression of this kind be properly used at all? 26. Give an example. 27. When two nouns in the possessive follow each other, limiting different words, what is the rule for annexing the sign of the possessive? 28. Give an example. 29. Under what circumstances, and for what purpose, is the *s* after the apostrophe, sometimes omitted? 30. Illustrate this by an example. 31. Repeat the principle violated in the following sentence, "She began to extol the farmer's, as she called him, excellent understanding." 32. State the principle violated in the following sentences.—"The men's healths suffered from the climate."—"James and William's wives are of the same age." 33. When a participle is used as a verbal noun, in what case is a noun or pronoun coming before it? Give an example.

39TH. EXERCISE.

THE POSSESSIVE.

In the following sentences, say which are correct, and which are incorrect. State distinctly the principle violated in the false syntax, and correct it. Give the construction of all the words to which the rule applies, and repeat the rule applicable to each word. Do the written exercise as directed under Rule 1st.

1. Virtue's reward. 2. He was averse to the nation's involving itself in war. 3. That knife is yours, but I thought it was mine. 4. That landscape is a picture of my father's. 5. The tree is known by the fruit of it. 6. William and Mary's reign. 7. Messrs. Pratt's, Woodford's, & Co.'s bookstore is in New York. 8. Call at Smith the bookseller and stationer's. 9. That house is Smith the poor man's friend. 10. James father arrived yesterday. 11. The prisoner's, if I may say so, conduct was shameful. 12. It is the duty of Christians to submit to their lot. 13. Mans chief end is to glorify God. 14. Much depends on the pupil composing frequently. 15. My book is old, but your book and Roberts book are new. 16. The work you speak of is one of Irving. 17. The commons' vote was against the measure, but the lords' vote was in its favor. 18. David and Solomon's reign were prosperous. 19. Jack the Giant-killer's wonderful ex-

ploits. 20. The parcel was left at Johnson's a merchant in Broadway. 21. We spent an agreeable hour at Wilson, the governor's deputy. 22. King Jame's translators merely revised former translations. 23. Peter the Hermit's as he was called, opinion. 24. We protest against this course, in our own names and in the names of our constituents. 25. My ancestor's virtue is not mine. 26. He being rich did not make him happy. 27. Gravitation was a discovery of Sir Isaac Newton. 28. The weekly return of the Lord's day is a blessing to man. 29. John and William's wife are cousins. 30. The bishop's of London's charge to his clergy.

WRITTEN EXERCISE.—Place the number attached to each principle under this rule, in the margin of your exercise paper, and write, opposite each number, a sentence which shall contain an example of a violation of the principle, and immediately under it, a correct example.

OBJECTIVE OF VERBS.

604. RULE V.—A transitive verb in the active voice governs the objective case; as, "We love *him*."—"He loves *us*."—"*Whom* did they send?"

SPECIAL RULES.

605.—1st.—Verbs used intransitively do not require, and must not have an object to complete the meaning; thus:—

"Repenting *him* of his design," should be, "Repenting of his design." Still, a few anomalies of this kind are to be found; as, "They laughed *him* to scorn."—"The manliness to look the *subject* in the face."—"Talked the *night* away."

606. *2nd.—Intransitive verbs used in a transitive sense require an object to complete the meaning;* as, "He runs a *race*."—"They live a holy *life*."

607. To this usage may be referred such expressions in poetry

as the following: "The brooks ran *nectar*"—"The trees wept *gums* and *balms*"—Her lips blush deeper *sweets*," &c.

608. To this rule also belongs the objective after *causatives;* as, "He runs a *stage*."—"John walks his *horse*."—"He works *him* hard," &c. Such expressions, however, as "*Grows corn*," are inelegant, and should be avoided.

609.—3rd.—Verbs used intransitively do not, except in a few instances, admit of a passive form.

"I am purposed"—"I am perished," should be, "I have purposed"—"I am perishing." Such expressions as "I *am resolved*," —"He is *deceased*"—"He *is retired* from business"—"We *are determined* to go on," &c., though common, are incorrect. It is better to say, "I *have* resolved"—"He *has* retired." The verbs *come* and *go* and several others are, however, often used in the passive form by good writers; as, He is gone. Year after year it steals till all are fled.

610.—4th.—A transitive verb does not admit a preposition after it; thus, "I must premise *with* a few observations."—"I will not allow *of* it." Omit *with* and *of*.

611.—5th.—Verbs signifying to NAME, CHOOSE, APPOINT, CONSTITUTE, and the like, generally govern two objectives, *viz.*, the DIRECT, denoting the person or thing acted upon, and the INDIRECT, denoting the result of the act expressed; as, "They named *him* John."—"The people elected *him* president."—"They made *it* a book."

612. In using such verbs in the passive voice, the direct object of the active form should be made the subject of the passive, leaving the indirect as the predicate nominative after the verb. Thus, "He was named *John*."—"He was elected *president*,"—"It was made a *book*."

613. Besides the direct or immediate object in the objective case some verbs have a *remote* object between the *immediate* and the verb, governed by a preposition understood; as, "John gave ME a *book*." But when the remote object comes last, the preposition must be expressed; as, "John gave a *book* to ME." The verbs thus used are such as signify; to *ask, teach, offer, promise, give, pay, cost, tell, allow, deny*, and some others.

614. These verbs in the passive properly take the immediate object of the active for the subject.

615. In loose composition, however, the *remote* object is some times made the subject, and the *immediate* object remains in the objective case after the passive voice; as, "*I* was promised a *book*." The verbs *ask* and *teach* frequently have this construction in the passive, but in general the regular construction is better.

616. Similar to this are certain expressions sufficiently correct in the active form, but which are anomalous, and cannot be analyzed in the form usually but incorrectly given to them in the passive: Thus, *Aetive*—"They took possession of the farm." Passive (incorrectly) "The farm was taken possession of by them." —(correctly) "Possession of the farm was taken by them." This anomaly arises from making the object of the preposition, instead of the object of the verb, the subject of the verb in the passive. Such anomalies are the following: "The circumstance was made use of." "The ship was lost sight of."—"The occasion was taken advantage of." Either the regular passive form of expression should be used, or, if that be awkward, a different form of expression should be chosen.

POSITION.

617. As the nominative and the objective cases of nouns are alike in form, the arrangement of the sentence should clearly show which is intended to stand as nominative and which as objective. The nominative generally *precedes* the verb, and the objective *follows* it. Thus, "Brutus killed Cæsar." If one (or both) of these should be a pronoun, the order may be varied without obscuring the sense, and sometimes the objective is rendered more emphatic by being placed *first;* as, "*Him* he slew."

618. When the objective is a relative or an interrogative pronoun, it precedes both the verb and its nominative; as, "The man *whom* we saw is dead."—"*Whom* did you send?"

619. The objective should not, if possible, be separated from its verb by intervening clauses. Thus, "We could not *discover*, for the want of proper tests, the *quality* of the metal." Better, "We could not, for want of proper tests, *discover the quality* of the metal.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

OBJECTIVE OF VERBS.

1. What is the rule for the objective to a verb? 2. What rule condemns such an expression; as, repenting *him* of his design? 3. Give an example to show that verbs usually intransitive may be used transitively. 4. To what principle would you refer such expressions as "*he walks his* horse;" he works him hard? 5. What verbs do not admit of being used in the passive voice? 6.

Why? 7. Give examples to illustrate the violation of this principle. 8. Give examples of good usage contrary to this rule. 9. What principle is violated in the following sentence, "I must premise with a few observations." 10. Give another example of the violation of the same rule. 11. What verbs usually govern a direct and an indirect objective. 12. Give an example. 13. When a verb governing a direct and an indirect objective is used in the passive voice, which should be made the subject of the verb? 14. Illustrate this by an example. 15. Give an example of a verb having a direct and remote object. 16. When must the preposition be introduced to govern the remote object? 17. Repeat the verbs that take a remote and direct objective. 18. When these verbs are used in the passive, what irregular construction is sometimes met with in good writers. 19. Illustrate this, using the verbs ask and teach. 20. What is said of such constructions as, "The farm was taken possession of." "The occasion was taken advantage of" 21. What is the usual position of the nominative and objective? 22. Why may the position be varied more freely when the nominative or objective is a pronoun. 23. Illustrate by an example. 24. When the objective is a relative or interrogative pronoun, what is its position? 25. Illustrate this by an example. 26. What principle is violated in the sentence,—"*We could* not discover, for want of proper tests, the quality of the metal? 27. Illustrate this principle by further examples.

40TH EXERCISE.

OBJECTIVE OF VERBS.

In the following exercise say which sentences are correct and which are incorrect. State distinctly the principle violated in the false syntax, and correct it. Give the construction of the words to which the rule or any remark under it applies, and repeat the rule. Do the written exercise as directed under RULE 1st.

1. Him and them we know, but who art thou? 2. He is retired to his room. 3. She that is idle and mischievous, reprove sharply. 4. Is your father returned? 5. Them that honor me I will honor. 6. He was not returned an hour ago. 7. Who do you think I saw yesterday? 8. He is gone. 9. Whom did he marry? 10. No country will allow such a practice. 11. Who, having not seen, we love. 12. False accusation can not diminish from his real merit. 13. Whom should I meet the other day but my old friend?

14. He ingratiates with some by traducing others. 15. Who dost thou take to be such a coward? 16. They shall not want encouragement. 17. You will have reason enough to repent of your foolish conduct. 18. The house was taken possession of. 19. Go, flee thee away into the land of Judea. 20. A pension was promised me. 21. Hasten thee home. 22. Several persons had entered into a conspiracy. 23. She would not accept the situation, though she was offered it. 24. Fifty men are deserted from the Army. 25. A dollar was paid to me for my services. 26. He is almost perished with cold. 27. The commissioner was denied access. 28. I have resolved to go. 29. Becket could not better discover, than by attacking so powerful an interest, his resolution to maintain his right. 30. The troops pursued, without waiting to rest, the enemy to the gates.

WRITTEN EXERCISE.—Place the number attached to each principle under this rule in the margin of your exercise paper, and write opposite each number a sentence which shall contain an example of a violation of the principle, and immediately under it a correct example.

OBJECTIVE OF PREPOSITION.

620. RULE VI.—A preposition governs the objective case; as, "To *whom* much is given, of *him* much shall be required."

621. The object of a preposition may take any form that a noun may assume; therefore it may be *an infinitive mood—a participle used as a noun—part of a sentence—a phrase*, or a *clause*; as, "He is ABOUT *to depart*."—"AFTER *we came*."—On *receiving his diploma*."—"Much depends ON *who are his advisers*."

622. As a general rule, it is considered inelegant to connect a transitive verb and a preposition, or two prepositions with the same object. Thus, "I wrote *to* and *warned* him." Better, "I wrote *to him* and *warned him*." So, "*Of him*, and *through him*, and *to him*, are all things." Not *of*, and *through*, and *to him*," &c.

623. This general rule is so little regarded, even by the best writers, that it is a matter of doubt whether it should any longer

retain a place in our grammars. In many instances, at least, the form of speech condemned by the rule is clearly better in respect of perspicuity, brevity, and strength, than that which it recommends, and in such cases it should be adopted. In some cases, again, as in the above example, the full form is better than the elliptical. In this matter, every one must be guided by his taste and judgment, avoiding equally obscurity and harshness.

624. When the prepositions *to*, *at*, *in*, stand before names of places, the following usage should be carefully observed, viz:—

1. *To*—is used after a verb of motion; as, "He went *to* Spain." But it is omitted before *home;* as, "Go *home*."

2. *At* is used before names of *houses*, *villages*, *towns*, and *foreign cities;* as, "He resides *at* the Mansion House."—"*At* Saratoga Springs."—"*At* Lisbon."

3. *In*—is used before names of *countries* and large *cities;* as, "He lives *in* England"—"*in* London"—"*in* New York." But after the verbs *touch*, *arrive*, *land*, and frequently after the verb *to be*, *at* is used before the names of places and large cities; as, "We touched *at* Liverpool, and, after a short passage, landed *at* New Orleans"—"I was *at* New York."

4. In speaking of one's residence in a city, *at* is used before the *No.*, and *in* before the *street;* as, "He resides *at* No. ——."—"He lives in State street." When both are mentioned together, the preposition is commonly understood before the last; as, "He lives *at* No. ——, State street," or "He lives *in* State street, No. ——"

625. Sometimes the antecedent term of a preposition, and sometimes the subsequent, is omitted. Thus, the *antecedent;* "[*I say*] in a word."—"All shall know me [*reckoning*] from the least to the greatest." The *subsequent:* "There is a man I am acquainted with"—that is, *with whom* I am acquainted.

626. Though words denoting *weight*, *measure*, &c., are evidently governed by a preposition, yet, as it is for the most part understood, it is better to dispose of such cases by the following—

627. RULE.—Nouns denotiog TIME, VALUE, WEIGHT, or MEASURE, are commonly put in the objective case, without a governing word; as,

"He was absent six *months* last *year*."—"It cost a *shilling*."—"It is not worth a *cent*."—"It weighs a *pound*."—"The wall is six feet high, and two *feet* thick."

628. This may be called the objective of *time*, *value*, *weight*, &c., as the case may be.

629. Nouns denoting *time how long* are generally without a preposition; as, "He is ten *years* old." Also nouns denoting time *when*, in a general or indefinite way; as, "He came last *week*." But nouns denoting the time *when*, definitely or with precision, generally have the preposition expressed; as, "He came last week, *on Wednesday, in the evening*."

POSITION.

630. Prepositions should be placed before the words which they govern, and as near to them as possible; but never before *that* as a relative.

631. *Whom* and *which* are sometimes governed by a preposition at some distance after them; this, however, should be avoided as much as possible. Thus, "That is the man *whom* I gave the letter *to*." Generally better thus—"*to whom* I gave the letter."

632. The preposition with its objective should be placed as near as possible to the word to which it is related.

Under this rule, there is liability to error only in the use of *pronouns* and with regard to *position*.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

OBJECTIVE OF PREPOSITION.

1. What is the rule for the case of the noun or pronoun that completes a preposition? 2. Besides being a noun or pronoun, what may the object of a preposition be? 3. Give examples. 4. What principle is violated in the sentence, "*I wrote to and warned him?*" 5. What is the remark made as to the questionable authority of this principle? 6. When the prepositions *to*, *at*, or *in*, govern the names of places, what usage should be carefully observed? 7. Illustrate, by examples, the correct and incorrect use of these prepositions. 8. What remark applies to the construction of the prepositions in the following expressions, "*In* a word; "A person I am acquinted *with*;" "*From* the least to the greatest? 9. What is the rule for the case of nouns denoting *time, value, weight*, or *measure?* 10. Illustrate each by an example. 11. What may this construction be called? 12. What distinction is made in the construction of nouns denoting *time when*, indefinitely, and *time when* precisely? 13. Illustrate by an example. 14. In relation to the words they govern, what is the best position for prepositions? 15. Give examples. 16. What principle condemns the sentence,—"That is the person whom I gave the letter to?" 17. What principle condemns the sentence,—"The ignorance of the age rendered the progress very slow of the invention." 18. Show how the principle applies. 19. Under this 6th rule, in respect to what is the chief liability to error?

41st EXERCISE.

OBJECTIVE OF PREPOSITION.

In the following exercise, say which sentences are correct, and which incorrect; state distinctly the principle violated in the false syntax and correct it. Give the construction of the words to which the rule, or any remark applies, and repeat the rule. Do the written exercise as directed under RULE 1st.

1. Will you do me a favor?—2. The nature of the undertaking was such as to render the progress of the work very slow.—3. I shall be pleased to do to him a kindness.—4. Beyond this period the arts can not be traced of civil society.—5. Ask me that question again.—6. Wanted, a young man to take care of horses, of a religious turn of mind.—7. We remained in a village in the vicinity of London.—8. The following verses were written by a young man who has long lain in the grave, for his own amusement.—9. We touched in Liverpool on our way for New York.—10. A public dinner was given to the inhabitants, of roast beef and plum pudding.—11. I have been in Boston.—12. I saw that the kettle had been scoured, with half an eye.—13. The book which I read that story in is lost.—14. He rode to town, and drove twelve cows, on horseback.—15. I know not who.—16. The man was digging a well, with a Roman nose.—17. He gave the book to some one.—18. That is a small matter between you and me.

WRITTEN EXERCISE.—Place the number attached to each principle under this rule, in the margin of your exercise paper, and write opposite each number, a sentence which shall contain an example of a violation of the principle, and immediately under it a correct example.

INDEPENDENT CASE.

633. RULE VII.—A noun or pronoun whose case depends on no other word, is put in the independent case, and takes the form of the nominative.

NOTE.—The case under this rule is usually called *the nominative absolute* or *independent;* because, in English, though it has no grammatical dependence on any word in the sentence, it has usually the form of the nominative. A substantive may be used in the independent case in four different ways, viz:—

634. 1ST.—*A substantive with a participle, whose case depends on no other word, used to express a cause, reason, or concomitant;* as, "*He* being gone, only two remain," &c.

635. In this construction the substantive is sometimes understood; as, "His conduct, viewing it even favorably, can not be commended;" that is "*we* [*a person*] viewing it," &c.

636. Sometimes *being* and *having been* are omitted; as, "Her wheel [*being*] at rest"—"He *destroyed* or *won*," &c., that is, "He *having been destroyed* or *won*," &c—"This said," that is, "This *being* said."

637. In this construction, the substantive with the participle is used to express an assumed fact in an abbreviated form, and is equivalent to a dependent clause, connected by *when, while, if, since, because*, &c., as, "*He having gone*, his brother returned;"—"*Since* or *because he went*, his brother returned."

638. 2ND.—*The name of a person or thing addressed, is in the independent case;* as, "I remain, *dear sir*, yours truly."—"*Plato*, thou reasonest well."

639. 3RD.—*A substantive, unconnected in mere exclamation is in the independent case;* as, "O, the *times!* O, the *manners!*"

640. 4TH.—*A substantive, used by pleonasm before an exclamation;* as, "The *boy*, oh! where is he?"—"Your *fathers*, where are they?—the *prophets*, do they live forever?"

Under this rule, a mistake can only be made by using the wrong form of pronouns.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

INDEPENDENT CASE.

1. What is the rule that applies to the construction of nouns and pronouns which, though properly used, are neither in the Nominative, Possessive, nor Objective? 2. What form does a pronoun in the Independent case usually take? 3. In what four ways are nouns used in the Independent case? 4. Give an example of each. 5. In the sentence, "*His conduct, viewing it even favorably cannot be commended;*" what is the construction of the words "*conduct*" and "*viewing?*" 6. In the expression "*This said,*" what is omitted? 7. The construction of the independent before a participle is an abreviated form for what?

42ND EXERCISE.

INDEPENDENT CASE.

In the following exercise, say which sentences are correct and which incorrect: state distinctly the principle violated in the false syntax, and correct it; give the construction of all the words to which the rule or any remark applies, andrepeat the principle. Do the written exercise as directed under Rule 1st.

1. I being absent, the business was neglected.—2. He made as wise proverbs as anybody, him only excepted.—3. All enjoyed themselves very much, me excepted.—4. Whom being dead, we shall come. 5. O Caledonia! stern and wild. 6. The stately homes of England! how beautiful they stand! 7. The strangers heart! O, wound it not. 8. Thou has't been to the pearls dark shrine, O, wrestler with the sea.

5. Whose gray top
Shall tremble, him descending.

The bleating sheep with my complaints agree,
Them parched with heat, and me inflamed by thee.

She quick relapsing to her former state.

Then all thy gifts and graces we display,
Thee, only thee, directing all our way.

THE INFINITIVE MOOD.

641. RULE VIII.—The infinitive mood is a verbal noun; and when not the subject of a verb, or governed, as any other noun, by a verb, noun, or preposition, it is governed by the sign "*to;*" as:—

To speak in that manner is wrong—"to speak" subject of the verb "*is.*" I desire *to learn*—"to learn" objective to "desire." I have a desire to learn,—"to learn"—in apposition with the noun "desire." I am in haste *to depart*—"to depart,"—governed by the preposition for, understood, or without supplying anything governed by the sign "to." I am ready *to begin* the work—"to begin" governed by for, understood, or by the sign "to." He is about *to return*—"to return," governed by the preposition "about." He lived so as [he would live] to refute scandal—"to

refute" governed by "for" or by the sign "to." He aims higher than *to reign* [is high]—"to reign," nominative to is. He commanded the men *to march*—"to march," indirect objective of commanded. You are *to blame*—"to blame," predicate, nominative after the copula "are." I am anxious *to see* you—"to see" object of the adjective anxious. The use of the infinitive is sufficiently illustrated in these examples.

642. EXPLANATION.—The infinitive mood, in relation to the word that governs it, that is, the word on which it depends, has always the construction of a noun, as is shown in the above examples; but it is a *verbal* noun. Like the participle, it lacks the essential characteristic of the verb; that is, it is never used to make an assertion, and hence has no agreement in person and number with any word as its nominative. In other respects, it possesses the attributes, and takes the modificationsof the verb; as it expresses action or being, there must, therefore, be an actor; but, the word which represents the actor has its own construction, independent of any connection with the infinitive; the relation of such word as the doer of the act expressed by the *infinitive*, is superadded and incidental. Take, for example, the sentence,—"*I* am ready *to begin* the *work immediately*." "*I*" is the doer of the act, expressed by the infinitive "to begin," but "I" has its construction independent of this as nominative to the verb "am." "To begin," in its verbal character, like any other transitive verb, has, as a matter of course, its objective, "work;" and also, in its verbal character, is modified by the adverb "immediately." "He commanded the *men to lead* their *horses up the hill*. "To lead" is the object of "commanded;" "men" is the doer of the act, expressed by the infinitive "to lead," but "men" has its construction independent of this as the direct objecttive of "commanded;" "horses" is objective of "to lead;" "up the hill" is an adjunct, modifying "to lead."

SPECIAL RULE.

643. When the infinitive is governed by the verbs BID, DARE, NEED, MAKE, SEE, HEAR FEEL and LET, in the active voice, or by LET in the passive, "to" is omitted before it; as, "I saw him do it"—"You need not go"—"He was let go."

644. To this rule there are some exceptions. As it relates only to euphony, "to" may be inserted when harshness will not thereby be produced; thus, "Conscious that his opinion needs *to* be disguised."

645. For the same reason, "*to*" is sometimes omitted after the verbs *perceive, behold, observe, have* and *know*.

646. When several infinitives come together in the same construction, the sign *to* expressed with the first, is sometimes omitted before those that follow; thus, "It is better to be a king and *die*, than to live and *be* a prince." This should never be done when either harshness or obscurity would be the result.

647. "To," the sign of the infinitive, should never be used for the infinitive itself. Thus, "I have not written, and I do not intend *to*," is a colloquial vulgarism for, "I have not written, and I do not intend *to write*."

648. The infinitive is sometimes put absolutely, without a governing word; as, "*To say* the truth, I was in fault."

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

1. What is the rule for the construction of the Infinitive Mood? 2. Write sentences containing examples of all the various constructions of the Infinitive, and point out the construction in each. 3. Explain by using examples the *verbal* and the *noun* character of the infinitive. 4. What is the special rule for the omission of "*to*" before the infinitive? 5. Give examples. 6. Is the sign "*to*" ever used before the infinitive depending on any of these verbs? 7. Give examples. 8. The sign "*to*" is sometimes omitted before the infinitive depending on what other verbs? 9. Under what other circumstances is the sign "*to*" sometimes omitted before the infinitive? 10. What principle is violated in the sentence,—"I have not written and I do not intend to." 11. What is the construction of the infinitive in the following sentence.—"*To say* the truth, *I was in fault*."

43RD EXERCISE

INFINITIVE MOOD.

In the following, say which are correct and which incorrect; state distinctly the principle violated in the incorrect syntax, and correct it; give the construction of all the words to which the rule or any note under it applies, and repeat the principle applicable to each. Do the written exercise as directed under Rule 1st.

1. It is better to be a king and to die than to live and be an exile.—2. He scorns either to temporize, or deceive, or be guilty of evasion.—3. I have seen some young persons conduct themselves very discreetly.—4. He bid me to go home.—5. Let no man to think too highly of himself.—6. He was heard to say it by

everybody.—7. Dare to be wise.—8. They were bid come into the house.—9. I strive to live as God designed me to.

Point out the construction of the infinitive in the following correct sentences.

10. It too often happens that to be above the reach of want just places us within the reach of avarice.—11. It does no good to preach generosity, or even justice, to those who have neither sense nor soul.—12. He was born to be great.—13. To accomplish these ends, savages resort to cunning.—14. They thought to make themselves rich.—15. Some people are difficult to please.—16. To know ourselves, we must commence by knowing our own weakness.—17. If we have not always time to read, we have always time to reflect.—18. To be or not to be? that is the question.—19. I do well to be angry.—20. Whatsoever thy hand findeth to do, do it with thy might.—22. Having food to eat and raiment to put on, be content.

WRITTEN EXERCISE.—Place the number attached to each principle under this rule in the margin of your exercise paper, and write opposite each number a sentence which shall contain an example of a violation of the principle, and immediately under it a correct example.

ADJECTIVE.

649. RULE IX.—*Every adjective and adjective word qualifies or limits some noun expressed or understood;* as, "A *good* book"—"An *amusing* story"—"*These* pens"—"*Every* day."

650. *Adjectives denoting* ONE *limit nouns in the singular; adjectives denoting* MORE THAN ONE, *limit nouns in the plural;* as, "*This* man"—"*These* men"—"*Six* feet."

651. When an adjective denoting one is joined to a plural noun, the whole is regarded as one aggregate; as, "The first *two weeks*" —"Every *ten miles*"—"The last *four lines*"—"The last *days of summer*," &c. But the verb after such subjects is usually plural.

652. In such expressions, the cardinal number, if small, may precede the words *first* and *last*, but not the other cardinals; as, "The *two first* weeks"—"The *four last* lines," meaning the two weeks *at the beginning*, or *preceding all the rest*—the four lines *at the end*, or *succeeding all the rest*.

653. Two or more adjectives, expressing qualities that belong to different objects of the same name, and that name expressed only with the last, should have an article before each; as, "The *red* and the *white* rose"—that is *two* roses, the one red, and the other white. So, "The first and the second page"—"The first and the second verse"—"The old and the New World." It has become common, however, even with good writers, to drop the second article, and change the singular into the plural, to express the same idea; thus, "The first and second pages"—"The first and second verses," &c. This mode of expression, though incorrect in itself, is less stiff and formal than the other. When adjectives denoting *one* are connected by *or*, *nor*, &c., the noun must be singular.

654. Adjectives denoting *more than one* are the following, viz. —all cardinal numbers above *one;* as, *two*, *three*, &c.—*few*, *many*, with its comparative *more*,—*all* denoting number, *both*, and *several*.

655. Adjectives should not be used as adverbs; thus, "*miserable* poor," should be, "*miserably* poor"—"sings *elegant*," should be, "sings *elegantly*." So also, adverbs should not be used as adjectives; thus, "He arrived *safely*," should be, "He arrived *safe*."

656. *This here*, *that there*, *them* books, are vulgarisms, for *this*, *that*, *those* books.

657. An adjective sometimes qualifies an adjective and noun together as one compound term; as, "A *venerable* old man"—"The *best* black tea."

658. Sometimes an adjective modifies the meaning of another adjective; as, "*red-hot* iron"—"a *bright-red* color."

This, that—these, those.

659. When two or more objects are contrasted, *this* refers to the last mentioned, *that* to the first; as, *Virtue* and *vice* are opposite qualities; *that* ennobles the mind, *this* debases it."

660. *Former* and *latter* are used in the same way. So also, *the one*, *the other*, referring to words in the singular or plural, previously mentioned.

CONSTRUCTION OF COMPARATIVE AND SUPERLATIVE.

661. When one object is compared with one other of the *same class*, or with more than one of a different class, individually, or in the aggregate, the comparative is used; as, "James is the *weaker* of the two"—"He is *taller* than his father.—"He is *taller* than any of his brothers."

662. Sometimes, however, when two objects of the same class are compared, the superlative is used, being thought to be less stiff and formal; as, "James is the *weakest* of the two."

663. When one object is compared with more than one of the *same class*, the superlative is used, and commonly has *the* prefixed; as, "John is *the tallest* amongst us"—"He is *the best* scholar in a class of ten"—"He is *the most diligent* of them all."

664. In the use of the comparative and superlative, when more than two objects are compared, the following distinction should be carefully observed, viz.;—

665. When the comparative is used, the latter term of comparison must always *exclude* the former; thus, "Eve was fairer than any of her daughters,"—"Russia is larger than any *other* country in Europe,"—"China has a greater population than any nation of Europe," or, "than any *other* nation on the globe." Thus used, the comparative requires *than* after it.

666. When the superlative is used, the latter term of comparison must always *include* the former; as, "Russia is the largest country in Europe."—"China has the greatest population of any nation on the globe."

667. Double comparatives and superlatives are improper; thus, "James is *more taller* than John"—omit *more*—"He is the *most wisest* of the three"—omit *most*.

668. The double comparative *lesser*, however, is sanctioned by good authority; as, "Lesser Asia"—"Every lesser thing."—*N. Y. Review*.—"Like Lesser streams."—*Coleridge*.

669. Adjectives not admitting comparison, should not be compared, or connected with comparative words, such as, *so*, *as*, and the like. Thus, *more universal, so universal, as universal*, should be *more general, so general, as general;* and so of similar words.

POSITION OF ADJECTIVES.

670. An adjective is commonly placed before its substantive; as, "A *good* man"—"A *virtuous* woman."

671. Adjectives should be placed as near as possible to their substantives, and so that it may be certain to what nouns they belong;

thus, "A new pair of shoes"—"A fine field of corn"—"A good glass of wine," should be, "A pair of new shoes"—"A field of fine corn"—A glass of good wine"—because the adjectives qualify *shoes, corn, wine*, and not *pair, field, glass*. When ambiguity can not otherwise be avoided, the use of the hyphen may be resorted to with advantage; thus, "A *good-man's* coat"—"A good *man's-coat.*

672. When an adjective qualifies two or more substantives, connected by *and*, it is usually expressed before the first, and understood to the rest; as, "A man of *great wisdom* and *moderation.*"

673. It has been disputed whether the numerals *two, three, four*, &c., should be placed *before* the words *first* and *last*, or *after* them, when used to indicate the beginning and the end of a series. On this point, with small numbers, usage is nearly equally divided; and, as the matter now stands, in some cases the one form seems to be preferable, and in some, the other. In this construction, as in some others which involve no impropriety, euphony and taste seem to govern. This much is certain—neither form can be justly condemned, on the ground of either authority or propriety.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

ADJECTIVE.

1. What is the general rule for the construction of the adjective? 2. What is the rule for the construction of adjectives of number? 3. What is the rule for the use of the article in each of the following expressions? "The red and the white rose"—"The red and white rose." 4. What is said of the following mode of expression?—"The first and second pages." 5. When adjectives denoting one, and connected by "*or*," "*nor*," &c., belong to a noun, in what number must the noun be? 6. Give examples. 7. What adjective would you place in the class of those denoting more than one? 8. What principles condemn the expression, "Miserable poor," "*He arrived safely?*" 9. What is said of such expressions as, "*this here*"—"*that there*"—"*them books?*" 10. What is said of such expressions as, "*A venerable old man*"—"*The best black tea.*" 11. What is said of such expressions as, "*A red hot iron*,"—"*A bright red color?*" 12. What is the rule for the use of, *this, that, these, those*? 13. Give examples. 14. What other words are used in the same manner? 15. When is the comparative degree used? 16. Is the superlative ever used instead of the comparative? 17. Give an example. 18. When should the superlative be used? 19. When more than two objects are compared, what distinction should be carefully observed in using the comparative and superlative? 20. Illustrate this distinction by examples. 21. What is said of double comparatives and superlatives? 22. What

is said of the double comparative "*lesser*?" 23. What principle condemns such expressions as, "*more universal*," &c. 24. What is generally the position of adjectives? 25. What principle would require the position of the adjective to be changed in the following sentences,—"*A fine field of corn*,"—"*A good glass of wine*,"—"*A new pair of shoes*." 26. In accordance with what principle is the adjective omitted before the word *moderation*, in the sentence—"*A man of great wisdom and moderation*." 27. What is said on the question—should the numerals *two*, *three*, &c., be placed before the words *first* and *last*, or after them?

44TH EXERCISE.

THE ADJECTIVE.

In the following say which are correct and which incorrect. State distinctly the principle violated in the incorrect syntax, and correct it. Give the construction of all the words to which the rule or any remark applies, and repeat the rule applicable to each word. Do the written exercise as directed under rule 1st.

1. These kind of books can hardly be got. 2. He is the best accountant who can cast up correctly the sum of his own errors. 3. I have not been from home this ten days. 4. I ordered six ton of coal, and these makes the third that has been delivered. 5. In matters of conscience, first thoughts are best; in matters of prudence, the best thoughts are last. 6. I measured it with a ten-foot pole. 7. To calumniate is detestable, to be generous is commendable. 8. Hard fighting continued four hours. —9. A man who is prudent and industrious, will, by that means, increase his fortune. 10. No such original convention of the people was ever held antecedent to the existence of civil government. 11. I never met with a closer grained wood. 12. The first and second verse are better than the third and fourth. 13. He described a beautiful young lady leading a blind old man. 14. Time passes swift, though it appears to move slow. 15. We got home safely before dark, and found our friends sitting comfortably around the fire. 16. The boat glides smooth over the lake. 17. That he should have refused the appointment is extraordinary. 18. Draw that line more perpendicular. 19. Homer is the greater genius, Virgil the better artist. 20. Hand me that there

pen, for this here one is the worst of all. 21. The last of the Roman tribunes. 22. The rumor has not spread so universally. 23. William is the taller of the two. 24. Them books were sold for a lesser price than they cost. 25. A more worthier man you can not find. 26. Socrates was wiser than any other Athenian. 27. That very subject which we are now discussing is still involved in mystery. 28. Philadelphia is the most regular of any city in Europe. 29. Of all the vices, covetousness enters deepest into the soul. 30. China has a greater population than any nation on earth. 31. Transcribing was, of all occupations, that which Cowper disliked the most. 32. That ship is larger than any of its class. 33. Soft sighed the flute. 34. The birds of Brazil are more beautiful than any in South America.—35. Heaven opened wide her ever during gates.—36. To be wise and good is to be great and noble.

37. "For beast and bird,
These to their greasy couch, those to their nests, repair."

38. Night's shadows hence, from hence the morning's sunshine,
That bright, this dark, this earthly, that divine."

WRITTEN EXERCISE.—Place the number attached to each note or remark under this rule in the margin of your paper, and write opposite each number a sentence which shall contain an example of a violation of the principle, and immediately under it a correct example.

LIMITING ADJECTIVES.

A, AN, THE.

674.—1. *The article* A or AN *is put before common nouns in the singular number when used* INDEFINITELY; as, "*A* man"—"*An* apple;" that is, "*any* man"—"*any* apple."

675. *The article* THE *is put before common nouns, either singular or plural, when used* DEFINITELY; as, "*The* sun rises"—"*The* city of New York."

676. A common noun, in the singular number, without an article or limiting word, is usually taken in its widest sense; as, "*Man* is mortal"—"*Anger* is short madness."

677. *The* is sometimes used before a singular noun, to particularize a species or class, without specifying any individual under it; as, *the oak, the rose, the horse, the raven*, meaning, not any particular *oak, rose, horse*, or *raven*, but the class so called in a general sense. In such cases, whether the noun is used to denote a class or an individual, can be determined only by the sense, as in the following examples: "*The oak* produces acorns"—"*The oak* was struck by lightning."—"*The horse* is a noble animal"—"*The horse* ran away."—"*The lion* shall eat straw like *the ox*"—"*The lion* tore *the ox* in pieces."—"*The night* is the time for repose"—"*The night* was dark."

678 When several nouns are connected in the same construction, the article is commonly expressed with the first, and understood to the rest; as, "The men, women, and children are expected." But when emphasis, or a different form of the article is required, the article is prefixed; as, "The men, the women, and the children, are expected."—"A horse or *an* ass."

679. But when several nouns in the same construction are disjunctively connected, the article must be repeated; as, "The men, or the women, or the children are expected."

680. *The* is commonly put before an adjective used as a noun; as, "*The righteous* is more excellent than his neighbour." Also before adjectives in the superlative degree, when comparison is implied; as, "Gold is *the* most precious of the metals." But when comparison is not implied, the superlative is either without an article, or has *a* or *an* preceding it; as, "A most excellent man."

681. *The* is sometimes put *intensively* before adjectives and adverbs in the comparative degree; as, "*The higher* the mountain *the colder* its top"—"*The faster* he goes, *the sooner* he stops." Thus used it performs the office of an *adverb*.

682. An adjective placed after its noun as an epithet, commonly has the article *the* before it; as, "Alexander *the Great*"—"Charles *the Fifth*."

This may be considered as inverted for "The Great Alexander." "The fifth Charles;" or, by ellipsis, for "Alexander, the great [conqueror]," "Charles, the fifth [emperor of that name]."

683. *A* or *an* is sometimes put before the adjectives *few, hundred, thousand*, followed by a plural noun; as, "*A few* men"—"*A hundred* acres"—"*A thousand* miles." In such cases, the adjective and noun may be considered as a compound term expressing *one* aggregate, and having the construction of a collective noun. Or the adjective may be regarded as a collective noun, and the noun following governed by *of*, understood; as, "*A* few [of] men"

—"*A* hundred [of] acres," &c. This is evidently the construction of larger numbers; thus, we never say, "A million dollars," but "A million of dollars."

684. When two or more adjectives belong to the *same* noun, the article of the noun is put with the first adjective, but not with the rest; as, "*A red* and *white* rose," that is, *one* rose, partly *red* and partly *white*. But—

685. When two or more adjectives belong each to a *different* object of the same name, the article of the noun is put with each adjective; as, "A red and white rose,"="A red rose and a white rose," that is, *two* roses, *one* red and the *other* white.

686. So, also, when two or more epithets follow a noun, if both designate the *same* person, the article precedes the first only. If they designate different persons, the article must precede each; thus, "Johnson, the bookseller and stationer," means *one* man who is both a bookseller and a stationer; but, "Johnson the *bookseller*, and *the* stationer," means two men, one a bookseller named Johnson, and the other a stationer, not named.

687. When two nouns after a word implying comparison, refer to the same person or thing, the last *must want* the article; as, "He is a better soldier than statesman." But when they refer to two different persons, the last *must have* the article; as, "He is a better soldier than a statesman [would be]."

688. The article *a* before the adjective *few* and *little*, renders the meaning *positive;* as, "A few men can do that"—"He deserves a little credit." But without the article the meaning is *negative;* as, "*Few* men can do that"—"He deserves *little* credit."

689. The article is generally omitted before *proper names, abstract nouns*, and names of *virtues, vices, arts, sciences*, &c., when not restricted, and such other nouns as are of themselves so manifestly definite as not to require it; as, "*Christmas* is in *December*"—"*Logic* and *mathematics* are important studies"—"*Truth* is *mighty*." Still certain proper names, and names used in a certain way, have the article prefixed; as, "The *Alps*"—"The *Rhine*"—"The *Azores*"—"The immortal *Washington*"—"He was *a Johnson*, of the family of *the Johnsons* in England."

POSITION OF THE ARTICLE.

690. The article is commonly placed before its noun; as, "*A man*"—"*The man*."

691. If the noun is qualified by an adjective before it, the article precedes the adjective; as, "*A good man*."

692. But the article follows the adjectives, *all, such, many, what*,

both; and all adjectives preceded by *too, so, as,* or *how;* as, "*All the* men"—"*Such a* man"—"*Many a* man"—"*What a* man"—"*Both the* men"—"*Too great a* man"—"*So great a* man"—"*As great a* man"—"*How great a* man."

693. When the adjective follows the noun, not as the epithet, the article remains before the noun, and the adjective is without it; as, "A man destitute of principle should not be trusted."

694. The use of the article is so varied, that the best general rule is to study what the sense requires, both as to its proper use and position.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS

ON THE LIMITING ADJECTIVES—A, AN, THE.

1. Before what nouns is the article *a* or *an* placed? 2. Before what nouns is the article *the* placed? 3. How is a common noun in the singular, without an article or limiting word, usually taken? 4. Give an example. How is the article used in each of the following sentences? 5. "*The oak* produces acorns."—"*The oak* was struck by lightning."—"*The horse* is a noble animal."—"*The horse* ran away." 6. When several nouns are connected in the same construction, how is the article commonly used? 7. Give examples. 8. When several nouns in the same construction are disjunctively connected, how is the article used? 9. Give an example. 10. What principles apply to the use of the article in the following sentences? "*The* righteous is more excellent than his neighbour."—"Gold is *the* most precious of the metals."—"*A* most excellent man." 11. What is said of the use of the article in such sentences as: "*The* higher the mountain, the colder its top."—"*The* faster he goes, the sooner he stops?" 12. What is said of the following use of the article: "Alexander *the* Great."—"Charles *the* Fifth," &c.? 13. What is said of the following use of the article? "*A* few men."—"*A* hundred acres."—"*A* thousand miles." 14. What is the rule for the use of the article when two or more adjectives belong to the same noun? 15. Give an example. 16. What is the rule for the use of the article when two or more adjectives belong each to a different object of the same name? 17. Illustrate by an example. 18. What is the rule for the use of the article in each of the following expressions: "Johnson *the* bookseller and stationer."—"Johnson *the* bookseller and *the* stationer?" 19. What difference of meaning does the use of the article make in each of the following expressions: "He is *a* better soldier than statesman."—"He is a better soldier than a statesman?" 20. What principle respecting the use of the article do you deduce from this difference of meaning? 21. What rule respecting the article arises from the difference in meaning of "*A* few men can do it," and "Few men can do it?"

22. Give another similar example. 23. Before what nouns is the article usually omitted? 24. Give examples. 25. What is generally the position of the article in relation to its noun? 26. If a noun is qualified by an adjective, in what instances is the article not placed before the adjective? Give examples. 27. What direction is given as the best general rule for the use and position of the article?

45TH EXERCISE.

THE LIMITING ADJECTIVE—A, AN, THE.

In the following sentences, with special reference to the Article, say which are correct and which are incorrect. State distinctly the principle violated in the false Syntax, and correct it. Give the construction of every word to which any of the remarks applies. Do the written exercise, as directed under Rule 1st.

1. The life of a modern soldier is ill represented by heroic fiction. 2. A few men of his age enjoy so good health. 3. We should ever pay attention to the graceful and becoming. 4. The age of chivalry is gone. 5. Are not my days few? 6. The memory of the just is blessed; but the name of the wicked shall rot. 7. A crowd at the door was so great that we could not enter. 8. A little respect should be paid to those who deserve none. 9. Best men are often those who say least. 10. Reason was given to man to control his passions. 11. It is always necessary to pay a little attention to business. 12. James is a man of the most brilliant talents. 13. A man was made to mourn. 14. He is not so good a poet as historian. 15. Herod the Great was distinguished for his cruelty. 16. The horse is a noble animal. 17. A man may be a better soldier than a logician. 18. Pliny the younger was noted for gentleness and benignity. 19. A lion is generous, a cat is treacherous, a dog is faithful. 20. Thomson the watchmaker and the jeweller made one of the party. 21. The father of William Cowper, poet, was chaplain to George II. 22. War has means of destruction more dreadful than cannon or sword. 23. The first and the second book are difficult. 24. Neither the man nor boy was to blame. 25. A hot and cold spring

were found in the same neighbourhood. 26. A man may be a mechanic, or a farmer, or a lawyer, and be useful and respected; but an idler or a spendthrift can never be either. 27. A red and white flag was the only one displayed from the tower. 28. A beautiful stream flows between the old and new mansion.

CONSTRUCTION OF PARTICIPLES.

695. RULE X.—The participle, when not joined with the auxiliary verbs "*have*" or "*to be*," and taken as a verb, has the construction of a verbal NOUN or verbal ADJECTIVE: as—

"*He, loving* his work, performed it"—"*Esteeming* themselves wise, *they* became fools"—"After *defeating* his army, he took possession of the king"—"*Writing* letters is my occupation in the morning."

In the first two of the above examples, the participles are verbal *adjectives*. In the other two they are *verbal* nouns.

It will be seen by these examples, that while the verb formally *asserts or declares the fact, the participle assumes it.* We are thus, with the greatest advantage, enabled to condense what we have to say, by abridging the dependent clauses. The explanatory remarks on the *infinitive* apply equally to the *participle*.

696. In a substantive phrase, a noun following the imperfect or perfect participle (as well as the infinitive) of a copulative verb, is in the predicate-nominative; as, "His *being* an *expert* dancer"—"The crime of *being* a young *man*."

SPECIAL RULES.

697. 1.—When a participle is used as a verbal noun, a noun before it is put in the possessive case; as, "Much depends on the *pupil's* composing frequently"—"*John's* having done so is evident."

698. In many cases, the nominative or the objective before the imperfect participle when used as an *adjective*, will expresss nearly the same idea; thus, "Much will depend on the *pupil's* composing,"

and—"Much will depend on the *pupil* composing," mean substantially the same thing. Still, the construction is different; in the first, the *dependence* is on the *composing;* in the second, it is on the *pupil:* and though in these examples the sense is nearly the same, yet there are often examples in which the sense is entirely different: thus, "What do you think of my *horse's* running to-day?" implies he *has* run, and asks, "How do you think he ran?" But "What do you think of my *horse* running to-day?" implies he *has not* run, and asks, "Do you think he should run?"

699. 2.—When the verbal noun expresses something, of which the noun following denotes the DOER, it should have the article and preposition; as, "It was said in *the hearing of* the witness." But when it expresses something of which the noun following does not, denote the doer, but the OBJECT, both should be omitted as, "The court spent some time in *hearing* the witness."

700. 3.—The perfect participle, and not the past tense, should be used after the auxiliaries HAVE and BE; as, "I have *written*" (not *wrote*)—"The letter is *written*" (not *wrote*).

701. So also, the perfect participle should not be used for the past tense; as, "He *ran*," not *run*—"I *saw*," not *seen*—"I *did*," not *done.*

702. In many verbs whose present passive expresses, not the present continuance of the act, but of the result of the act in a finished state, the imperfect participle has a *passive* as well as an active sense; and is used with the auxiliary verb *to be*, to express the present passive progressively; as, "The house *is building.*" When, in such verbs, the participle in *ing* has not a passive sense—or where the use of it in a passive sense would be ambiguous, the proper form of the passive should be used.

703. The participle is sometimes used absolutely, having no dependence on any other word; as, "Properly *speaking*, there is no such thing as chance."

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

THE PARTICIPLE.

1. What is the general rule for the construction of the partici-

ple? 2. Illustrate the rule by examples. 3. What is the great advantage to the language arising from the use of the participle? 4. Illustrate this by examples. 5. What explanatory remarks on the infinitive apply equally to the participle? 6. In the following phrases, "His being an expert *dancer*,"—"The crime of being a young man," what is the construction of the words "*dancer*" and "man?" 7. What is the rule for the case of the word *pupil's* in the sentence, "Much depends on the *pupil's* composing frequently?" 8. Can the same meaning always be expressed by the nominative or objective before the imperfect participle, used as a qualifying word?" 9. Illustrate by an example. 10. When should the imperfect participle, used as a verbal noun, have the article before it, and the preposition after it; and when should it have neither?" 11. Illustrate by an example. 12. What principle is violated in the expressions—"I have wrote," "I seen," "I done," &c.? In what verbs has the imperfect participle a passive as well as an active sense? 14. Illustrate by examples. 15. Under what circumstances should the proper form of the passive be used? 16. Illustrate by an example. 17. What is the construction of the participle in the following sentence,—"Properly *speaking* there is no such thing as chance?"

46TH EXERCISE.

THE PARTICIPLE.

In the following, say which are correct and which incorrect; state distinctly the principle violated in the false syntax, and correct it. Give the construction of all the participles and repeat the rule applicable to each. Do the written exercise as directed under Rule 1st.

1. We could not be sure of its being him. 2. While the necessary movement was being made. 3. Man rebelling against his Maker, brought him into ruin. 4. Goods are now being sold off at first cost. 5. Joseph having been sold by his brethren, was overruled for good. 6. Wheat is being sold at a fair price. 7. A man being poor does not make him miserable. 8. And still be being done and never done. 9. What do you think of my horse running to-day? 10. While these things were being transacted in England. 11. Did he run well? 12. The court was then being held. 13. What think you of my horse's running to-day? Will it be safe? 14. The spot where this new and strange tragedy

was being acted. 15. By the obtaining wisdom you will command respect. 16. The French language is spoke in every part of Europe. 17. This was equal to the rejecting of the proposal. 18. Some fell by the way side and was trode down. 19. Learning of anything well requires great application. 20. I seen the man who done it. 21. Meekness is manifested in suffering of ills patiently—in the suffering ills patiently—in the suffering of ills patiently—in the patient suffering ills—in patient suffering of ills. 22. Some one has took my pen. 23. In the hearing of the will read, and in the examining of sundry papers much time was spent. 24. The tree has fell. 25. I have drank enough. 26. He has broke his cup.

WRITTEN EXERCISE.—Place the number attached to each note or remark under the rule, in the margin of your paper, and write immediately opposite each number, a sentence violating the principle represented by the numbers, and under it a correct example.

THE PRONOUN.

AGREEMENT WITH THE ANTECEDENT.

704. RULE XI.—Pronouns must agree with the nouns for which they stand, in gender, person, and number; as, "All that a *man* hath, will *he* give for *his* life."—"A *tree* is known by *its* fruit."

THE PERSONAL PRONOUN.

SPECIAL RULES.

705. 1.—When a pronoun refers to two or more words taken together, it becomes plural, and, if they are of different persons, prefers the first person to the second, and the second to the third; as, "*He* and *she* did *their* duty," "*John* and *you* and *I* will do *our* duty."

706. 2.—When a pronoun refers to two or more words in the singular taken separately, or to one of them exclusively, it must be singular; as, "A clock or a watch moves merely as *it* is moved."

707. 3.—But if either of the words referred to is plural, the pronoun must be plural also; as, "Neither he nor *they* trouble *themselves*." Distributives are always of the third person singular.

708. When singular nouns of different genders are taken separately, they can not be represented by a pronoun, for want of a singular pronoun, common gender, except by a clumsy repetition of pronouns of the corresponding genders; thus, "If any *man* or *woman* shall violate *his* or *her* pledge, *he* or *she* shall pay a fine." The use of the *plural* pronoun in such cases, though sometimes used, is improper; as, "If any man or woman shall violate *their* pledge, &c.

709. Pronouns referring to singular nouns or other words, of the common gender, taken in a general sense, are commonly masculine; as, "A parent should love *his* child."—"Every person has *his* faults."—"No one should commend *himself*." The want of a singular personal pronoun, common gender, is felt also in this construction.

710. A pronoun referring to a collective noun in the singular, expressing many as one whole, should be in the neuter singular; but when the noun expresses many as individuals, the pronoun should be plural; as, "The *army* proceeded on *its* march."—"The *court* were divided in *their* opinion."

711. A singular noun after the phrase, "*many a*," may take a pronoun in the plural, but never in the same clause; as—

> "In Hawick twinkled *many a* light
> Behind him soon *they* set in night."—*W. Scott.*

712. Pronouns representing nouns personified, take the gender of the noun as a *person;* as, "*Night* sable goddess, from *her* ebon throne." But pronouns representing nouns taken metaphorically, agree with them in their *literal* sense; as, "Pitt was the *pillar* which in *its* strength upheld the state."

713. It is improper in the progress of a sentence to denote the same person by pronouns of different numbers or forms; as, "I labored long to make *thee* happy, and now *you* reward me by ingratitude." It should be "to make *you* happy," or, "*thou* rewardest."

POSITION OF PRONOUNS.

714. When words of different persons come together, the usual order of arrangement, in English, is to place the second person before the third, and the first person last; as, "*You* and *he* and *I* are sent for."—This matter concerns *you* or *him* or *me*."

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

PERSONAL PRONOUN.

1. What is the rule for the agreement of the pronoun with the noun for which it stands? 2. When the pronoun refers to two or more words taken together, what rule determines its number? 3. If the pronoun refers to two or more antecedents of different persons taken together, what rule determines its person? 4. Illustrate by an example. 5. What number must the pronoun be in when it refers to two or more words taken separately? 6. If either of the words should be plural, what number should the pronoun be? 7. What inconvenience arises from the want of a singular pronoun, common gender? 8. Illustrate this by an example. 9. Write a sentence involving such a construction, in as many different ways as possible, and decide which is the best, and why? 10. In the sentence,—A parent should love *his* child; what principle sanctions *his*? 11. What principle sanctions the form of the pronouns in the sentences,—"The army proceeded on *its* march,"—"The court were divided in *their* opinion?" 12. What principle limits the use of a plural pronoun referring to the phrase "*Many a?*" 13. Illustrate by an example. 14. What gender do pronouns representing a noun personified take? 15. Give an example. 16. How do pronouns standing for nouns taken metaphorically agree with them? 17. Give an example. 18. What principle condemns the change in the form of the pronoun in the sentence: I laboured long to make *thee* happy, and *you* reward me with ingratitude? 19. When pronouns of different persons are connected together, what is the usual order of arrangement? 20. Give an example.

47TH EXERCISE.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

In the following, say which are correct and which are incorrect. State distinctly the principle violated in the false Syntax, and correct it. Give the construction of all the words to which the rule or any remark applies, and repeat the principle. Do the written exercise as directed under Rule 1st.

1. A person's success in life depends on his exer-

tions. If he shall aim at nothing, he shall certainly achieve nothing. 2. I and my father were invited. 3. The court, in its wisdom, decided otherwise. 4. A man's recollections of the past regulate their anticipations of the future. 5. An invitation was sent to me and George. 6. Society is not always answerable for the conduct of their members. 7. Each of us had more than we wanted. 8. Care for yourself, if you would have others to care for you. 9. If any boy or girl should neglect her duty, they shall forfeit their place. 10. Every one of you should attend to his own business. 11. If thou forget thy friend, can you expect that your friend will remember thee? 12. No lady or gentleman would do a thing so unworthy of them. 13. Both cold and heat have its extremes. 14. One man may do a kindness to another, though he is his enemy. 15. One should not think too highly of himself. 16. You and I must be diligent in our studies. 17. John gave his friend a present which his friend highly valued. 18. A parent's care for her children is not always highly valued. 19. One or other must relinquish his claim. 20. The committee were divided in their opinions. 21. Let each esteem others better than herself. 22. Neither wealth nor honor confers happiness on their votaries. 23. The earth is my mother; I will recline on her bosom. 24. Poverty and wealth have each its own temptations. 25. That freedom, in its fearless flight, may here announce its glorious reign. 26. As time advances, it leaves behind him the traces of its flight.

WRITTEN EXERCISE.—Place the number attached to each note or remark under the rule in the margin of your paper, and write, immediately opposite each number, a sentence violating the principle represented by the number, and under it a correct example.

THE RELATIVE PRONOUN.

SPECIAL RULES.

715. Who *is applied to persons, or to things personified;* as, "The *man who*"—"The *fox who* had never seen a lion."

716. Which *is applied to things and inferior animals*,—sometimes to children,—to collective nouns in the singular implying unity,—and to persons in asking questions.

717. *Which* applies to a noun denoting a person, when the *character*, or the name *merely as a word*, is referred to; as, "He is a good *writer*, *which* is all he professes to be."—"That was the work of *Herod*, *which* is but another name for cruelty."

718. *That*, as a relative; is preferable to *who* or *which*—

1. After adjectives in the superlative degree—after the words *very*, *same*, and *all*—often, after *no*, *some*, and *any*—and generally in restrictive clauses.
2. When the antecedent includes both persons and things; as, "The *man* and the *horse that* we saw."
3. After the interrogative *who*, and often after the personal pronouns; as, "*Who that* knew him could think so?" "*I that* speak in righteousness."
4. When the propriety of *who* or *which* is doubtful; as, "The little *child that* was placed in the midst."

719. The relatives *who* or *which* and *that* should not be mixed in a series of relative clauses having the same antecedent. Thus it is improper to say, "The man *that* met us and *whom* we saw." It should be, "*who* met us, or "*that* we saw."

720. The relative refers sometimes to the idea expressed by an adjective, sometimes to the infinitive. But this construction is rare.

721. The relative in the objective case is often omitted: as, "Here is the book I promised you." The relative in the nominative case is hardly ever omitted except in poetry; as—

"In this, 'tis God—directs, in that, 'tis man."

722. *What* should not be used for the conjunction *that*, Thus, "I cannot believe but *what* it is so," should be, "but *that* it is so." Also the demonstrative *that* should not be used for the relative *what*; as, "We speak *that* we do know," better, "*what* we do know."

POSITION OF THE RELATIVE.

723. To prevent ambiguity, the relative should be placed as near its antecedent as possible, so that there can be no uncertainty as to what word it refers.

724. In most instances, the sense will be a sufficient guide in this matter; thus, "They removed their wives and children in wagons covered with the skins of animals, *which* formed their simple habitations." Here the sense only can determine to which of

the three words, *wagons*, *skins*, or *animals*, the relative *which* refers. But—

725. When the antecedent cannot be determined by the *sense*, it should be determined by the *position* of the relative, which, as a general rule, should belong to the nearest antecedent. Thus—

"We walked from the house to the *barn* } *which* had been erected"
"We walked to the barn from the *house* }

Here the relative *which*, as determined by its position, refers, in the first sentence, to *barn*, and in the second, to *house*.

726. So also when the antecedents denote the same object, the one being in the subject, and the other in the predicate, the relative takes the person of the one next it; as, "I am the *man who* commands you"—not "*command* you." If the relative refer to *I*, the words should be arranged, "*I who* command you am the man." Hence—

727 A relative clause which modifies the *subject* should not be placed in the *predicate;* thus, "He should not keep a horse that can not ride," should be, "He that cannot ride, should not keep a horse."

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

RELATIVE PRONOUN.

1. To what is *who* applied? 2. To what is *which* applied? 3. What principle sanctions the following use of which,—"He is a good writer, *which* is all he professes to be."? 4. Under what circumstances should *that* be preferred to *who* or *which?*. 5. Give an example of each. 6. What principle condemns the following usage,—"The man *that* met us, and *whom* we saw."? 8. Give an example of a relative referring to an adjective or to an infinitive. 9. What is said of this construction? 10. In what position is the relative frequently omitted, and in what position is it seldom omitted? 11. Give examples. 12. What principle condemns the use of *what* and *that* in the expressions,—"I cannot believe but *what* it is so"—"We speak that we do know." 12. In what position should the relative be placed in relation to its antecedent? 13. Show by an example the importance of this rule. 14. In the sentence,—"I am the man who *commands* you,"—what principle requires the verb to be *commands* and not *command*. 15. What principle is violated by the position of the relative in the sentence, "He should not keep a horse *that* can not ride, nor boots that can not walk?"

48TH EXERCISE.

THE RELATIVE PRONOUN.

In the following sentences, say which are correct and which incorrect. State distinctly the principle violated in the false syntax, and correct it. Give the construction of the words to which the rule is applicable, and repeat the rule. Do the written exercise as directed under Rule 1st.

1. Those who seek wisdom will certainly find her. 2. Those who spend their time in idleness must not expect the sympathy of the diligent. 3. The Tiger is a beast of prey who destroys without pity. 4. Oh Thou that art, and who wast, and that art to come! 5. The court who gives currency to such manners should be exemplary. 6. He needs no spectacles that can not see, nor boots that cannot walk. 7. Whoever came were made welcome. 8. Your friend is one of the committee that was appointed yesterday. 9. The king dismissed his minister without inquiry, who had never before committed so unjust an action. 10. Everything whatsoever ye would that men should do to you, do ye even so to them. 11. The family with whom I lived has left the city. 12. I can not believe but what you have been sick. 13. O Thou hast preserved us, and wilt still preserve us! 14. It is the best situation which can be got. 15. No man who respects himself would do so mean an action. 16. This is the same horse which we saw yesterday. 17. I who speak unto you am he.

WRITTEN EXERCISE.—Place the number attached to each note or remark under the rule in the margin of your paper, and write immediately opposite each number, a sentence violating the principle represented by the number, and under it a correct sentence.

SYNTAX OF THE VERB.

728. RULE XII.—A verb agrees with its subject in number and person; as "I *read*," "Thou *readest*," "He *reads*," "We *read*," &c.

SPECIAL RULES.

729. 1st.—A singular noun used in a plural sense, has a verb in the plural; as, Ten *sail are* in sight."

730. 2nd.—Two or more substantives, singular, taken together, have a verb in the plural; as, "*James* and *John are* here."

731. A singular nominative and an objective connected by *with*, sometimes have a plural verb; as, "The ship with the crew *were* lost." This construction is incorrect, and should not be imitated. A mere adjunct of a substantive does not change its number or construction. Either, then, the verb should be singular, "The ship with the crew *was* lost," or, if the second substantive is considered as belonging to the subject, it should be connected by *and*; as, "The ship *and* the crew *were* lost." But,

732. When substantives connected by *and*, denote *one* person or thing, the verb is singular; as, "Why *is dust* and *ashes* proud?" —"The *saint*, the *father*, and the *husband*, *prays*."—*Burns.*

733. Singular nouns, preceded by *each*, *every*, *no*, though connected by *and*, have the verb in the singular; as, "Each *book* and each *paper was* arranged."—"Every *paper* and every *book was* arranged."—"No *book* and no *paper was* arranged."

734. When a verb, having several nominatives connected by *and*, is placed *after* the first, it agrees with that, and is understood to the rest; as,

"Forth in the pleasing spring,
Thy *beauty walks*, thy *tenderness*, and *love*."—*Thomson.*

735. When the substantives connected are of different *persons*, the verb in the plural prefers the *first* to the *second*, and the *second* to the *third*. This can be perceived only in the pronoun.

736. 3rd.—Two or more substantives singular, taken separately, or one to the exclusion of the rest, have a verb in the singular; as,

"James or John *attends*"—"Neither James nor John *attends*,"—"John and not [but not] James *attends*"—"John as well as James *attends*"—"Not John but James *attends*."

737. Singular nouns connected by *nor*, sometimes have a plural verb. In that case, the verb denies equally of all, and *nor* is equivalent to *and*, connecting the verbs, and a negative which is transferred to, and modifies the verb; as, "Neither Moses, nor Minos, nor Solon, nor Lycurgus, were eloquent men."—*Acton.*—"Moses, and Minos, and Solon, and Lycurgus, were not eloquent men,"

or, "were none of them eloquent." This construction has not been generally noticed, but it often occurs in the best writers.

738. But when two or more substantives, taken separately, are of different numbers, the verb agrees with the one next it, and the plural subject is usually placed next the verb; as, "Neither the captain nor the sailors *were* saved;" rarely, "Neither the sailors nor the captain *was* saved."

739. 4th.—When substantives, taken separately, are of different persons, the verb agrees with the one next it; as, "James or I *am* in the wrong"—"Either you or he *is* mistaken"—"I or thou *art* to blame."

740. Though sentences are often formed according to this rule, yet they are generally harsh and inelegant. It is generally better to put the verb with the first substantive, and repeat it with the second; or to express the same idea by arranging the sentence differently; as, "James *is* in the wrong or I *am*," or, "One of us is in the wrong"—"Either you *are* mistaken or he *is*"—"I *am* to blame or thou *art*." This remark is sometimes applicable also, when the substantives are of the same person, but different in number, and requiring each a different form of the verb; as, "Either the captain or the sailors were to blame;" otherwise, "Either the captain *was* to blame, or the sailors *were*."

741.—5. A collective noun, expressing many, as ONE WHOLE, has a verb in the singular; as, "The *company was* large."

742.—2. But when a collective noun expresses many, as individuals, the verb must be plural; as, "My *people* do not consider."

743. It is sometimes difficult to determine whether a collective noun expresses *unity* or *plurality*. It is now considered generally best to use the plural, where the singular is not *manifestly* required.

744. A nominative after "many a" has a verb in the singular; as, "Full many a flower *is* born," &c.

745. When verbs are not connected in the same construction, each verb should have its own nominative. The following sentence is wrong in this respect; "The whole is produced as an illusion of the first class, and hopes it will be found worthy of patronage;" it should be, either "He *produces* the whole as an illusion," &c., "and *hopes*," &c.; or, "The whole is produced," &c., "and he hopes, &c., or, "and it is hoped," &c.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

THE VERB.

1. What is the rule for the person and number of the verb? 2. When the subject is a singular noun used in a plural sense, what is the rule for the agreement of the verb? 3. Give an example. 4. What is the rule for the agreement of the verb when the subject is two or more substantives singular, taken together. 5. What is said of the construction of the verb in the sentence,—"The ship with the crew were lost?" 6. What remark applies to the construction of the verb in the sentence,—"Why *is* dust and ashes proud?" 7. What remark applies to the construction of the verb in the sentence,—"Each book and each paper *was* arranged?" 8. What remark applies to the construction of the verb in the following sentence?—"Forth in the pleasing spring, thy beauty *walks*, thy tenderness and love." 9. When two or more nominatives taken together are of different persons, what should the *person* of the verb be? 10. Give an example. 11. When the subject is two or more substantives singular, taken separately, what should the number of the verb be? 12. Give an example. 13. What is said of the construction of the verb in the following sentence?—"Neither Moses, nor Minos, nor Solon nor Lycurgus, *were* eloquent men." 14. What is the rule for the agreement of the verb, when the subject is composed of two or more substantives of different numbers, taken separately? 15. Give an example. 16. When the subject consists of two or more substantives of different persons taken separately, what is the rule for the agreement of the verb? 17. Give an example. 18. What remark is made respecting the propriety of strictly adhering to this, and the preceding rule? 19. Illustrate by an example the construction which is considered better. 20. When the subject is a collective noun expressing many as one whole, what is the rule for the agreement of the verb? 21. Give an example. 22. When the subject is a collective noun expressing many as individuals, what is the rule for the agreement of the verb? 23. Give an example. 24. When it is doubtful whether the collective noun expresses unity or plurality, should the verb be singular or plural? 25. Give an example. 26. The nominative after "many a," takes a verb in what number? 27. What principle condemns the construction of the following sentence,—"The whole is produced as an illusion of the first class, and hopes it will be found worthy of patronage."

49TH EXERCISE.

THE VERB.

In the following, say which are correct and which are incorrect. State distinctly the principle or Rule violated in the false Syntax, and correct it. Give the construction of all the words, to which the rule or any note applies, and repeat the principle applicable to each word. Do the written exercise as directed under Rule 1st.

1. Our friend brought two loads to market, and it was sold at a good price. 2. Never was any nation so infatuated. 3. A man's being rich, or his being poor, do not affect his character for integrity. 4. The horse was sent forward to engage the enemy. 5. The letter from which the extract was taken, and came by mail, is lost. 6. The people often rejoices in that which will prove their ruin. 7. Neither precept nor discipline are so forcible as example. 8. Much does human pride and folly require correction. 9. Many a broken ship has come to land. 10. Thou, or he, or John, is the author of that letter. 11. Each day, and hour, and moment, is to be diligently improved. 12. There are sometimes two or three of us. 13. Many a one have tried to be rich but in vain. 14. Neither James nor I has had a letter this week. 15. Every leaf, and every twig, and every drop of water, teem with life. 16. Was you there. 17. Either he or I are willing to go. 18. That able scholar and critic have died. 19. A judicious arrangement of studies facilitates improvement. 20. The council was not unanimous. 21. Whether the subjects or the king is responsible, makes no difference. 22. To profess regard and to act differently marks a base mind. 23. So much of ability and merit are seldom found. 24. The audience were much pleased. 25. Neither the scholars nor the teacher were present. 26. Time and tide waits for no man. 27. A variety of pleasing objects charms the eye. 28. The public is respectfully informed. 29. He, and not they, is mistaken. 30. Out of the same mouth proceed blessing and cursing. 31. Fifty pounds of wheat produces forty pounds of flour.

32. A great number of women was present. 33. Books, not pleasure, occupies his mind. 34. Patience and diligence, like faith, removes mountains. 35. He dare not act otherwise. 36. The noble army of martyrs praiseth thee, O God! 37. His time, as well as his money and health, were lost in the undertaking. 38. One pair was spoiled; five pair were in good condition. 39. The days of man is as grass. 40. To do good or to get good is equally neglected by the foolish. 41. I love reading. 42. She need not trouble herself. 43. Two dozen is as many as you can take. 44. The foot, in the mean time, were preparing for an attack. 45. Our welfare and security consists in unity.

WRITTEN EXERCISE.—Place the number attached to each note or remark under the rule in the margin of your paper, and write immediately opposite each number, a sentence violating the principle represented by the number, and under it a correct sentence.

THE ADVERB.

746. RULE XIII. — Adverbs modify VERBS, ADJECTIVES, and other ADVERBS; as, "John speaks *distinctly*, he is *remarkably* diligent, and reads *very correctly*.

747. A few adverbs sometimes modify *nouns* or *pronouns;* as, "*Not only* the *men*, but the *women also*, were present."—"I, *even I*, do bring a flood."

748. Sometimes an adverb modifies a preposition, sometimes an adjunct, and sometimes a clause of a sentence; as, "He sailed *nearly round* the globe"—"*Just below* the ear"—"*Verily I say unto you*."—"*Unfortunately* for the lovers of antiquity, no remains of Grecian paintings have been preserved."

SPECIAL RULES.

749. 1st.—Adverbs should not be used as adjectives, nor adjectives as adverbs.

750. Such phrases as the following are, however, common with good writers: "The *above* rule"—"the *then* ministry;"—"For

very age;"—"the *hither* side;"—"thine *often* infirmities," and the like. Adverbs so used should of course be reckoned adjectives and parsed as such.

751. Some *adverbs* take the same form as the adjectives from which they are derived; as, *fast*, *long*, &c. Many adverbs have the adjective form, and also an adverbial form. The following, for instance: *clean*, *high*, *hard*, *loud*, *late*, *right*, *sore*, *soft*, *thick*, *wide*, *evil* or *ill*, *ready*, *clear*, *just*. The adjective and adverbial forms of most of these must be used with discrimination, having in some cases a different meaning, or being differently applied.

752. The poetic use of adjectives for adverbs is explained on the principle that the poets delight in antique forms,—forms sometimes obsolete in prose.

753. The adverbs *hence*, *thence*, *whence*, meaning *from this place*, *from that place*, *from which place*, properly should not have *from* before them, because it is implied. But the practice of the best writers has so sanctioned its use, that the omission of it would now sometimes appear stiff and affected.

754. After verbs of motion, the adverbs, *hither*, *thither*, *whither*, are now used only in solemn style. In ordinary discourse, *here*, *there*, and *where*, are used instead of them; as, "We came *here*"—"They walked *there*"—"*Where* did he go?"

755. *Where* should not be used for *in which*, except the reference is *to place*. Thus, "They framed a protestation, *where* [better *in which*] they repeated their former claims."

756. The adverbs *now*, *then*, *when*, *where*, are sometimes used by good writers as nouns, in such phrases as, *till now*, *till then*, *since when*, *to where*, &c. This, however, is rare in prose, and should not be imitated. In poetry it is more common.

757. Of this character are the expressions *at once*, *far from hence*, &c., but these are now established idioms, and in parsing are regarded as one word.

758. *There*, properly an adverb of place, is often used as an introductory expletive, as, "*There* came to the beach."

759. 2nd.—Two negatives in the same clause are equivalent to an affirmative, and should not be used, unless affirmation is intended; as, "I can not drink *no* [*any*] more," or, "I can drink *no* more."

760. But a repetition of the negation by independent negative words or phrases, or by transferring the word *neither* to the end of the clause, usually strengthens the negation; as, "There is *none* righteous, *no*, *not* one."—"He will *never* consent, *not* he, *not* I *neither*."

761. One negative is sometimes connected with another implied in the negative prefixes, *dis*, *un*, *im*, *in*, *il*, *ir*, &c.; as, "You are *not* unacquainted with his merits," that is, "You *are* acquainted," &c. In this way a pleasing variety of expression is sometimes produced. But the word *only* with the negative, preserves the negation; as, "He was not *only* illiberal, but even covetous."

762. The adverbs *nay*, *no*, *yea*, *yes*, *ay*, are used independently; as, "Will he go?"—"*No*."—"Is he at home?"—"*Yes*." These words, are each of them a substitute for a whole sentence. *Amen* (an affirmative verb, equivalent to "*Be it so*," or, "*May it be so*,") is also used independently.

763. *No* before a noun is an *adjective;* as, "*No man*." Before an adjective or adverb in the comparative degree, it is an *adverb;* as, "*No taller*."—"*No sooner*." In all other cases the proper negative is *not;* as, "He will *not* come"—"Whether he comes or *not*."

POSITION.

764. 3rd.—Adverbs are for the most part placed before adjectives, after a verb in the simple form, and after the first auxiliary in the compound form; as, "He is *very* attentive, behaves *well*, and *is much* esteemed."

765. This rule applies generally to adverbial phrases, as well as to adverbs.

766. This is to be considered only as a general rule, to which there are many exceptions. Indeed, no rule for the position of the adverb can be given, which is not liable to exceptions. That order is the best which conveys the meaning with most precision. In order to this, the adverb is sometimes placed before the verb, or at some distance after it.

767. *Never*, *often*, *always*, *sometimes*, generally precede the verb.

768. The improper position of the adverb *only* often occasions ambiguity. This will generally be avoided, when it refers to a sentence or clause, by placing it at the beginning of that sentence or clause; when it refers to a predicate, by placing it before the predicated term; and when it refers to a subject, by placing it after its name or description; as, "*Only* acknowledge thine iniquity."—"The thoughts of his heart are *only* evil."—"Take nothing for your journey but a staff *only*." These observations will generally be applicable to the words *merely*, *solely*, *chiefly*, *first*, *at least*, and perhaps to a few others.

769. In prose, *to*, the sign of the infinitive, or rather a part of it, should never be separated by placing an adverb immediately after it. Thus, "They are accustomed *to carefully study* their les-

sons," should be "*to study carefully*," or "*carefully to study*," &c.

770. The adverb *enough* is commonly placed after the adjective which it modifies; as, "A large *enough* house"—"A house large *enough* for all."

771. *Ever* and *never* are sometimes improperly confounded; thus, "Seldom or *ever*," should be "Seldom or *never*," or "Seldom if *ever*." *Ever so*, referring to quantity or degree, means *in whatsoever degree*. Hence, "Charming *never so* wisely," should be "*ever so* wisely." So, "*Ever so* much," "*ever so* wise," &c.

772. As adverbs are indeclinable, mistakes are liable to be made chiefly in their position, or in using as adverbs, words that are not such, or in using adverbs where other words are required.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

ADVERB.

1. What is the rule for the construction of the adverb? 2. What is said of adverbs modifying nouns and pronouns? 3. Give an example. 4. What is said of an adverb sometimes modifying a preposition, an adjunct, or a clause of a sentence? 5. Give examples. 6. What is the rule with reference to using adverbs for adjectives, and adjectives for adverbs? 7. Give examples. 8. Give instances of usage contrary to this rule. 9. Give examples of adverbs which take the same form as the adjectives from which they are derived. 10. Repeat the adverbs enumerated which have the adjective form as well as the adverbial. 11. Show by examples that the adjective and adverbial forms should be used with discrimination. 12. On what principle is the poetic use of adjectives for adverbs explained? 13. What is said of using the preposition *from*, before—*hence*, *thence*, *whence*? 14. What is said of the adverbs *hither*, *thither*, *whither*? 15. What principle condemns the use of "*where*" in the following sentence?—"They framed a protestation where they repeated their former claims. 16. What is said of *now*, *then*, *when*, *where*, used as nouns, in such phraees as, "*till now*," "*till then*?" 17. What is said of such expressions as, "*at once*," "*far from hence*," &c.? 18. What is said of "*there*," as used in the sentence, "There came to the beach," &c.? 19. What is said of two negatives in the same clause? 20. Illustrate by an example. 21. What principle is the sentence, "*There is none righteous, no not one*," introduced to illustrate? 22. How are two negatives sometimes used with advantage? 23. Give an example. 24. What is said of the adverbs *nay*, *yea*, *yes*, *ay*, and the word *amen*? 25. What is said of *no* and *not*? 26. What general rule is given for the position of the adverb? 27. Give examples. 28. What is the remark introduced to modify the authority of this rule? 29. What is the usual position of *never*,

often, always, sometimes, in relation to the verb? 30. What caution and directions are given respecting the position of the adverb "*only?* 31. Illustrate by examples. 32. What principle is the following sentence introduced to illustrate? "They are accustomed to carefully study their lessons." 33. What is said of the use of *ever* and *never?* 34. Illustrate this remark by examples. 35. Of what kind are the errors in using adverbs most likely to be?

34TH EXERCISE.

ADVERB.

In the following, say which are correct and which are incorrect; state distinctly the principle violated in the false syntax. Give the construction of the words to which the rule or any remark applies and repeat the principle. Do the written exercise as directed under Rule 1st.

1. "Drink deep or taste not the Pierian Spring." 2. He departed thence into a desert place. 3. Where art thou gone? 4. He drew up a petition in which he represented his own merit. 5. I can not do more. 6. We should not be overcome totally by present events. 7. Theism can be opposed only to polytheism. 8. Opon your hand widely. 9. The then emperor was noted for his cruelty. 10. I will send thee hence to the Gentiles. 11. And he said unto me, "Come up here." 12. He went to London last year, since when, I have not seen him. 13. He will never be no taller. 14. We should always prefer our duty to our pleasure. 15. Having not known or having not considered the measures proposed, he failed of success. 16. By greatness, I do not only mean the bulk of any single object, but the distinctness of a whole view. 17. To make this sentence perspicuous, it will be necessary to entirely remodel it. 18. He was befriended by the then reigning duke. 19. From hence! away! 20. Correct your heart and all will go rightly. 21. This happened many days afterward. 22. Not only he found her employed, but pleased and tranquil also. 23. In promoting the public good, we discharge only our duty. 24. She walks graceful. 25. Where I am, there ye can not come. 26. I have received no information on the sub-

ject, neither from him nor from his friend. 27. In the proper disposition of adverbs, the ear carefully requires to be consulted as well as the sense. 28. He only read the book, but not the letter. 29. He spoke eloquently. 30. Be so kind as to tell me whether he will do it or no. 31. They seemed to be dressed nearly alike. 32. He chiefly spoke of virtue, not of vice. 32. Our friends arrived safely. 34. His expressions sounded harsh. 35. And soft unto himself he said. 36. They returned lately in the evening. 37. He spoke quite loudly. 38. He aimed too highly. 39. He came hither. 40. His manners are not inelegant. 41. Whether it is so or no. 42. A large enough house.

WRITTEN EXERCISE.—Place the number attached to each note or remark in the margin of your paper, and write immediately opposite a sentence violating the principle represented by the numbers, and under it a correct sentence.

THE PREPOSITION.

773. RULE XIV.—A Preposition expresses the relation between some noun or pronoun depending upon it, and some other word in the sentence; as, He travelled *by* the cars *from* Hamilton *to* Montreal.

774. Under this rule the liability to error arises chiefly from the use of inappropriate prepositions.

775. In determining what preposition would be most appropriate in any given case, an acquaintance with the meaning of words and with the practice of good writers is the only safe guide. The following illustration and examples of good usage will serve to direct the attention of the pupil to this important subject.

Into, from outside to inside. *In*, inside only.—*At*, indefinitely in or about. *In* enclosure, surroundings. *Between* or *betwixt*, two only. *Among*, three or more. *By*, the agent, and *with*, the means or manner. A taste *of* what is enjoyed, a taste *for* what we wish to enjoy. Disappointed *of* what is not obtained, disappointed *in* what fails to answer our expectations after it is obtained. Die *of* disease *by* an instrument. Compare *with*, for ascertaining merit,—*to*, for illustration. Attended *by* persons, *with* consequences. Agree *with* a person, *to* something proposed, and *upon* some settlement of affairs. Change *for* by substitution, and *to* or *into* by alteration. Concur *with* a person, *in* a measure, and *to* an effect. A thing consists *of* what it is composed of, and consists *in* what it is comprised in. Conversant *with* men, and *in* things. What corresponds *with*, is consistent with,—and what corresponds *to*, answers to. Defend and protect yourself *against*, and others *from*. Disagree *with* a person, *as to* what is proposed. Usually, expert or skilled *in*, before an ordinary noun,—and *at*, when immediately before a participle noun. We are familiar *with* things, and they are familiar *to* us. Indulge *with* occasionally, and indulge *in* habitually. We introduce a person *to* another, and a person or thing *into* a place. Intrude *upon* a person or thing, and *into* something enclosed. We usually look *for* what is sought, and *after* what is entrusted to us. Prevail *with*, *on* or *upon*, by persuasion,—and *over* or *against* all opposition. Reconcile one friend *to* another, and apparent inconsistencies *with* one another. Reduce *under* implies subjugation, and reduce *to* implies simply a thing of state. To have regard *for*, and to pay regard *to*. *To unite to* means *to join to*, and frequently as an appendage,—*to unite with* means *to combine with*, and generally as a colleague or an equal. To vest authority *in* a person, and to invest a person *with* authority.

Abhorrence *of*; abhorrent *to*, *from*; access *to*; accord *with*; accuse *of*; adapted *to*; adequate *to*; agreeable *to*; aspire *to*; brag *of*; capacity *for*; comply *with*; confide *in*; conformable *to*, *with*; congenial *to*, *with*; consonant *with*; contiguous *to*; cured *of*; deficient *in*; dependent *on*; independent *of*; derogate *from*; derogatory *to*; destined *to*; differ *from*, seldom *with*; difficulty *in*; diminish *from*; diminution *of*; discourage *from*; discouragement *to*; disgusted *at*, *with*; disparagement *to*; dissent *from*; distinct *from*; eager *in*, *for*, *after*; embark *in*, *for*; enamored *of*, *with*; enter, entrance *on*, *upon*, *into*; exception *from*, *to*, *against*; exclude *from*; exclusive *of*; extracted *from*; followed *by*; fond *of*; fondness *for*; foreign *to*, *from*; founded *on*, *upon*, sometimes *in*; free *from*; glad *of*, sometimes *at*; guard *against*; hanker *after*; inaccessible *to*; incentive *to*; incorporate *into*, *with*, sometimes *in*; indulgent *to*; influence *over*, *with*, *on*; initiate *into*, sometimes *in*; inroad *into*; intermediate *between*;

intervene *between;* inured *to;* invested *with, in;* involved *in;* join *with, to;* lame *of;* land *at;* level *with;* long *for, after;* made *of;* marry *to;* intermarry *with;* meddle *with;* martyr *for;* militate *against;* mingle *with;* mistrustful *of;* necessary *to, for;* need *of;* neglectful *of;* object *to, against;* occasion *for;* offend *against;* offensive *to;* omitted *from;* overwhelmed *with, by;* peculiar *to;* penetrate *into;* pertinent *to;* pleasant *to;* pleased *with;* preferable *to;* preference *to, for, over, above;* prejudice *against;* prejudicial *to;* preserve *from;* productive *of;* profit *by;* profitable *to;* provide *with, for, against;* pursuant *to;* pursuance *of;* refrain *from;* relation *to;* release *from;* relieve *of, from;* rely *on, upon;* replete *with;* resemblance *to, between; in* or *with* respect *to; in* or *with* regard *to;* rise *above;* rid *of;* similar *to;* strip *of;* subtract *from;* swerve *from;* sympathize *with;* sympathy *for, with;* unison *with;* weary *of;* worthy *of.*

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

PREPOSITION.

1. Distinguish between the meaning of *in* and *into.* 2. Define *at* and *in,* and exemplify their correct use. 3. Distinguish between the proper use of *between* or *betwixt,* and *among.* 4. Distinguish between the use of *by* and *with,* and give an example. 5. When would a *taste of,* and when would a *taste for,* be proper? 6. Illustrate by an example. 7. When would *of* and when would *in* be required after the word *disappointed?* 8. Give an example. 9. Name the preposition proper to be used after each of the following words, giving the reason and illustrating each by an example: Die, compare, attended, agree, change, concur, consists, conversant, corresponds, defend and protect, disagree, expert or skilled, familiar, indulge, introduce, intrude, look, prevail, reconcile, reduce, have regard and pay regard, to unite, combine, to vest authority, to invest a person. 10. Name the prepositions proper to be used after the following words, and illustrate by examples: Abhorrence, abhorrent, access, accord, accuse, adapted, agreeable, aspire, brag, capacity, comply, confide, conformable, congenial, consonant, contiguous, cured, deficient, dependent, independent, derogate, derogatory, destined, differ, difficulty, diminish, diminution, discourage, discouragement, disgusted, disparagement, dissent, distinction, eager, embark, enamored, enter and entrance, exception, exclude, exclusive, extracted, followed, fond, fondness, foreign, founded, free, glad, guard, hanker, inaccessible, incentive, incorporate, indulgent, influence, initiate, inroad, intermediate, intervene, inured, invested, involved, join, lame, land, level, long, made, marry, intermarry, meddle, martyr,

militate, mingle, mistrustful, necessary, need, neglectful, object, occasion, offend, offensive, omitted, overwhelmed, peculiar, penetrate, pertinent, pleasant, pleased, preferable, preference, prejudice, prejudicial, preserve, productive, profit, profitable, provide, pursuant, pursuance, refrain, relation, release, relieve, rely, replete, resemblance, rise, rid, similar, strip, subtract, swerve, sympathize, sympathy, unison, weary, worthy.

51st EXERCISE.

PREPOSITIONS.

In the following, correct what is wrong in the use of Prepositions, and give the reasons for the change.

He was eager in recommending him to his fellow-citizens.—I find great difficulty of writing.—Every change is not a change to the better.—Changed to a worse shape it can not be.—It is important, in times of trial, to have a friend to whom you can confide.—You may rely on the truth of what he says.—Many have profited from good advice, but have not always been grateful of it.—I have no occasion in his services.—Favors are not always bestowed on the most deserving.—This is very different to that.—Virtue and vice differ widely with each other.—Come into the house.—We rode in a carriage with four horses.—The boy fell into a deep pit.—Such conduct cannot be reconciled to with profession.—Go, and be reconciled with thy brother.—A man had four sons, and he divided his property between them.—I am now engaged in that work.—He insists on it that he is right.

CONSTRUCTION OF CONJUNCTIONS.

776.—Rule XV.—Conjunctions connect words, phrases, or clauses.

777. Relative pronouns and conjunctive adverbs are also employed to connect clauses.

778. Co-ordinate sentences are connected by conjunctions of the various classes represented by *and, or, but, hence.* (See connectives of Compound Sentences, pp. 154, 155.)

779. Dependent clauses are connected with their principal clauses by such conjunctions, or other connectives, as may properly indicate the relation intended. (See connectives of noun, adjective, and adverbial sentences. pp. 149, 150, 152.)

780. The conjunction *that* serves to introduce a sentence; as, "That you should have thought so is not strange."

781. Disjunctive co-ordination is of two sorts, real and nominal; for example,—"A King or a Queen always rules in England." Here King and Queen being different names for different persons, the disjunction is real. In all real disjunction the inference is, that if one of two (or more) individuals (or classes) do not perform a certain action the other does.

782. "A Sovereign or Supreme Governor always rules in England." Here the disjunction is nominal, *Sovereign* and *Supreme Governor* being different names for the same person. In all nominal disjunction, the inference is, that if an agent (or agents) do not perform a certain action under one name, he does or they do it under another.

783. *If* is sometimes employed for *whether;* as, He doubts if two and two make four. This usage should be avoided.

784. The conjunction is often omitted.

785. The adjective *all* is sometimes used with neatness in poetry to supply the place of a copulative conjunction; as, *All* heart they live, all head, all eye, all ear, all intellect, all sense."—*Paradise Lost.*

786. When two or more verbs in the tenses, formed by auxiliaries, or in the progressive or emphatic form, or in the passive voice, are connected, the auxiliary expressed with the first, may be understood to the rest; as, "He *can* neither *read* nor *write*."—"Diligence *should be commended* and *rewarded*." Still, however, the repetition of the auxiliary is often more emphatic; as, "They shall come, and *they shall* declare his truth."

787. Verbs of the same mood, tense or form, connected as a compound predicate, have the nominative expressed with the first, and understood to the rest; as, "Cæsar *came*, *saw* and *conquered*." But—

788. When verbs connected are not in the same mood, tense or form, and especially if contrast or opposition expressed by *but*, *though*, *yet*, is intended, the nominative is frequently repeated; as, "He came, but *he* would not stay."

789. This, however, is to be regarded only as a general direction, in accordance with, perhaps, the majority of cases, but to which, as a rule, there are many exceptions. The object aimed at is to secure *euphony* and *perspicuity;* and when these are preserved without repeating the nominative, it may be omitted; as, "The two

charges *had been*, and still *are*, united in one person."—*North British Review.*

790. After expressions implying *doubt, fear,* or *denial,* the conjunction *that* is properly used—not *lest, but, but that;* as, "I do not doubt *that* he *is* honest."—"I am afraid *that* he will die."—Also, *what* should never be used for *that.* Thus, "He will not believe but *what* I am to blame," should be, "but *that* I am to blame."

791. Certain words in the antecedent member of a sentence, require corresponding connectives in the subsequent one; thus—

1. In clauses or words simply connected—

Both requires *and;* as, "*Both* he *and* I came."

Either———*or;* as, "*Either* he *or* I will come."

Neither———*nor;* as, "*Neither* he *nor* I came."

Whether———*or;* as, "*Whether* he *or* I came."

Though———*yet;* as, "*Though* he slay me, *yet* will I trust in him.

Not only———*but also;* as, "*Not only* he *but also* his brother goes."

2. In clauses connected so as to imply comparison—

The *comparative degree* requires *than;* as, "He is *taller than* I am."

Other requires *than;* as, "It is no *other than* he."

Else ——— *than;* as, "What *else* do you expect *than* this."

As ———*as* (expressing *equality*); as, "He is *as* tall *as* I am."

As ——— *so* (expressing *equality*); as, "As thy day is, *so* shall thy strength be."

So ——— *as* (with a negative expressing *inequality*); as, "He is not *so* learned *as* his brother."

So ———*that* (expressing *consequence*); as, "He is *so* weak *that* he can not walk."

Such ———*as* (expressing *similarity*); as, "He or *such as* he."

Such ———*that* (with a finite verb, to express a *consequence*); as, "The difference is *such, that* all will perceive it."

792. *And, or, nor,* do not *require* the corresponding antecedent, and *though* does not always require *yet.* By poetic license *or* and *nor* are sometimes used as antecedents, instead of *either neither.*

793. In sentences implying comparison, there is commonly an ellipsis in the second member, after *than* and *as;* "My punishment is greater than [*that is which*] I can bear."—"My punishment is as great as [*that is which*] I can bear." And sometimes in sentences not implying comparison, after *though* and *if;* as, "Though [*it is*] coarse, it is good."—"He is kind, if [*he is*] sincere.

794. A relative after *than* is put in the objective case; as, "Satan, than *whom* none higher sat." This anomaly may be regarded as a case of simple *enallage*.

795. When a subsequent clause or part of a sentence is common to two different, but connected antecedent clauses, it must be equally applicable to both; as, "That work always has been, and always will be *admired*." "He is as tall, though not so handsome, *as his brother*."

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

CONJUNCTION.

1. What different classes of conjunctions connect coördinately? 2. What different classes of words connect subordinately? 3. Disjunctive coördination is of what two kinds? 4. Illustrate by an example. 5. In all *real* disjunctions, what is the inference? 6. In all *nominal* disjunction what is the inference? 7. What use of the conjunction *if* is said to be objectionable? 8. Give an example. 9. Show by examples that the connection is often omitted. 10. What word is sometimes used in poetry to supply the place of the copulative conjunction. 11. What principle is illustrated in the following sentence—13. "He can neither read nor write." 13. What principle is illustrated in the following sentence—"Cæsar *came, saw*, and conquered." 14. What principle is illustrated in the following sentences—"He came, but he would not stay"—"The two charges had been, and still are, united in one person." 15. After expressions implying doubt, fear, or denial, what conjunction should be used? 16, Illustrate by an example. 17. What is the corresponding conjunction to each of the following: *whether, though, not only, other—else, as—as, so—so, such—such*. 18. Which of these do not always require the corresponding antecedent term? 19. After what conjunction is there frequently an ellipsis? 20. Give examples. 21. What principle is illustrated by the following sentence—"Satan, than whom none higher sat?" 22. What principle is illustrated in the following sentences—"That work always has been, and always will be *admired?*"—"He is as tall, though not so handsome, as his brother."

52ND EXERCISE.

THE CONJUNCTION.

In the following exercise, point out the connectives; say whether the connection is co-ordinate or subordinate, and of which class. Give the construction of the words to which the rule or any note applies, and repeat principle. Correct all errors.

1. Anger glances into the breast of a wise man; but it will rest only in the bosom of fools. 2. You and I are great friends. 3. He reads and is writing well. 4. He should have written, or should have sent, or should have come himself. 5. He might have been happy, and now is convinced of it. 6. I do not deny but he has merit. 7. It is so clear as I need not explain it. 8. The one is equally deserving as the other. 9. They had no sooner risen, but they applied themselves to their studies. 10. He is bolder than his companion, but not so wise. 11. If he understands the subject and attends to it, he can scarcely fail of success. 12. This is a small matter between you and I. 13. Does he not read and write well? 14. He could command his temper though he would not. 15. They were afraid that you would be offended. 16. As thy days are, so shall thy strength be. 17. These savage people seem to have no other element than war. 18. Sincerity is as valuable and even more so than knowledge. 19. Be more anxious about acquiring knowledge than showing it. 20. My father and he are very intimate. 21. Did he not tell thee his fault, and intreat thee to forgive him. 22. We were apprehensive lest some accident had happened him. 23. He must go himself or send his servant. 24. This is none other but the gate of Paradise. 25. Will it be urged that these books are as old or even older than tradition. 26. He is taller than me; but I am older than him. 27. Earth hath her solitudes, and so hath life. 28. We can not doubt but that he is well. 29. He is not as eminent and as much esteemed as he thinks himself to be. 30. He takes neither care nor interest in the matter. 31. I cannot see but what he is well.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

796. RULE XVI.—The form peculiar to the Subjunctive mood is used only when both contingency and futurity are implied; as, "If he *continue* to study he will improve."

797. When contingency or doubt only, and not futurity, is implied, the indicative form is used; as, "If he *has* money he keeps it."

798. Contingency or doubt is usually expressed by the connectives, *if*, *though*, *unless*, *except*, *whether*, &c; but whether futurity is implied or not, must be gathered from the context. In general, when the sense is the same, with *shall*, *will*, or *should* prefixed to the verb, as without it, the peculiar form of subjunctive may be used; otherwise, not. Thus, in the preceding example, "If he continue," and, "If he shall continue," mean the same thing.

799. The subjunctive mood is used to express a wish or desire: as, I wish I *were* wise!"

800. A supposition or wish, implying a present denial of the thing supposed or desired, is expressed by the past subjunctive; as, "If my kingdom *were* of this world, then would my servants fight," implying, "It is not of this world."—"O, that thou *wert* as my brother!" implying, "Thou art not."

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

1. What is the rule for using the peculiar form of the subjunctive? 2. Give an example. 3. When contingency only is implied, what form of the subjunctive is used? 4. Give an example. 5. How is contingency or doubt usually expressed? 6. How will you know whether futurity is implied or not? 7. Give an example of the subjunctive used to express a wish or desire. 8. What is the principle illustrated by the following sentence: "If my kingdom *were* of this world, then would my servants fight."

53RD EXERCISE.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

In the following, say which are correct and which incorrect; state distinctly the principle violated in the false syntax, and correct it; give the construction of all the words to which the rule applies; and repeat the rule.

1. We must go to-morrow unless it rain. 2. There will be enough to do next week if the weather is good. 3. Though the sky is clear, it is cold. 4. He will maintain his cause, though he loses his estate. 5. We may get letters, if the mail arrives in time. 6. If John is come, why did you not tell me? 7. Ask John if he know when the legislature meets. 8. If he knows anything, he surely knows, that unless he get better he cannot be removed. 9. If thou be the Son of God, command that these stones be made bread. 10. Take care that the horse does not run away. 11. See that thou dost it not. 12. Kiss the Son, lest he is angry. 13. Reprove not a scorner, lest he hates thee. 14. If he is but in health, it will be the cause of great thankfulness. 15. O, that he were wise! 16. I wish I was at home. 17. If I were not Alexander, I would be Diogenes. 18. If it was not so, I would have told you. 19. If he were a year older, I would send him to school. 20. If he was an impostor he must have been detected. 21. If I were he, I would accept the offer. 22. Was I he, I would accept the offer.

CONNECTION OF TENSES.

801. RULE XVII.—In expressing the different relations of time, care must be taken to employ those tenses which express correctly the sense intended; as, "I have known him these many years;"—not, I know him these many years;" nor, "I knew him these many years."

802. REMARK.—The particular tense necessary to be used must depend upon the sense, and no rules can be given that will apply to all cases. But it may be proper to observe, that—

803. An observation which is always true must be expressed in

the *present tense;* as, "The stoics believed that 'all crimes *are* equal.'"

804. The *present-perfect*, and not the present tense, should be used in connection with words denoting an *extent* of time continued to the present; thus, "They *continue* with me now three days, should be, *have continued*," &c.

805. The *present-perfect tense* ought never to be used in connection with words which express time, that has no connection with the *present;* thus, "I have *formerly* mentioned his attachment to study," should be, "I formerly mentioned," &c.

806. To express an event simply as past, without relation to any other point of time than the present, or as taking place *at* a certain past time mentioned, the *past tense* is used; as, "God created the world."—"In the beginning God created the world."

807. When we wish to represent an event as *past* at or before a certain past time referred to, the verb must be put in the *past perfect tense.* Thus, when we say, "The vessel *had arrived* at nine o'clock," we mean, at nine o'clock the arriving of the vessel was *past.* But when we say, "The vessel *arrived* at nine o'clock," we mean, the arriving of the vessel was then *present.*

808. It is always essential to the use of this tense that the event be PAST at the time referred to. It is proper to notice here, also, that in pointing out the time of a past event, two points or periods of time are often mentioned—the one for the purpose *of ascertaining the other.* Thus, "He arrived an *hour* before *sunset.*" Here the past-perfect is not used, though the arriving is represented as past before a past time mentioned, viz., *sunset*, because sunset *is not the time referred to*, but is mentioned in order to describe that time; and at the time described, the event, *arriving*, was not past, but present. If in this example we omit the word "hour," and merely say "*before* sunset," the construction will be the same. This will show that it is correct to say, "Before I went to France I visited England," because the visiting of England is represented as present, and not past at the time indicated by the word *before.* But if the event mentioned is represented *as past* at the time indicated by the word *before*, or if the sentence is so arranged that only one point of past time is indicated at which the event referred to is past, the *past-perfect* must be used; as, "They *had arrived* before we sailed."—"They arrived after we *had sailed.*"—"*I had visited* England when we returned to America."

809. The present and the past of the auxiliaries, *shall, will, may can,* should never be associated in the same sentence; and care must be taken that the subsequent verb be expressed in the same tense with the antecedent verb; thus, "I *may* or *can* do it now, if I *choose*"—"I *might* or *could* do it now, if I chose"—"I *shall* or *will* do it, when I *can*"—"I *may* do it, if I *can*"—"I once *could*

do it, but I *would* not"—"I *would* have done it then, but I *could* not"—"I *mention* it to him, that he *may* stop if he *choose*"—"I *mentioned* it to him, that he *might* stop if he *chose*"—"I have *mentioned* it to him, that he *may* stop"—"I *had* mentioned it to him, that he *might* stop"—"I *had* mentioned it to him that he *might have stopped*, *had* he *chosen*.

810. In dependent clauses, the *past-perfect indicative* or *potential* is used to express an event anteeedent to, but never, contemporary with, or subsequent to, that expressed by a verb in the past tense in the leading clause. Thus, we can say, "I believed he had done it," but not, "I hoped he had done it;" because *belief* may refer to what is past, but *hope* always refers to something future.

811. When *should* is used instead of *ought*, to express *present* duty, it may be followed by the present or present-perfect; as, "You *should* study, that you *may* become learned."

The indicative present is frequently used after the words *when*, *till*, *before*, *as soon as*, *after*, to express the relative time of a future action; as, "When he *comes* he will be welcome." When placed before the *present-perfect indicative*, these words denote the completion of a future action or event; as, "He will never be better *till* he *has felt* the pangs of poverty."

812. A verb in the infinitive mood must be in the *present tense*, when it expresses what is *contemporary* in point of time, with its governing verb, or subsequent to it; as, "He appeared *to be* a man of letters."—"The apostles were determined *to preach* the gospel." Hence, verbs denoting *hope*, *desire*, *intention*, or *command*, must be followed by the *present infinitive*, and not by the *perfect*.

813. But the perfect infinitive must be used to express what is *antecedent* to the time of the governing verb; as, "Romulus is said *to have founded* Rome."

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

CONNECTION OF TENSES.

1. What care must be taken in expressing the different relations of time? 2. Illustrate by examples. 3. What must determine the particular tense proper to be used in any case? 4. By what tense must a general truth be expressed? 5. Give examples. 6. In connection with words denoting an extent of time continued to the present, what tense should be used? 7. Give an example. 8. What principle is violated in the sentence,—"I have formerly mentioned his attachment to study." 9. When should the past tense be used? 10. When should the past perfect be used? 11. Illustrate by an example. 12. What is essential in the relation of time, to make the use of the past perfect tense proper? 13. What principle is the sentence,—"We arrived an hour before sunset,"

introduced to illustrate? 14. What principle are the following sentences introduced to illustrate?—"I *can* do it now, if I *choose*." —"I *shall* do it, when I *can*"—"I once *could* do it, but I *would* not."—"I *had* mentioned it to him that he *might have stopped had he chosen*." 15. In accordance with what principle is, "I *believed* he *had* done it,"—correct, and, "I *hoped* he had done it,"—incorrect? 16. What principle is the following sentence introduced to illustrate?—"You should study, that you may become learned?" 17. What principles are the following sentences introduced to illustrate?—"When he comes he will be welcome."—"He will never be better *till he has felt* the pangs of poverty." 18. What principle are the following sentences introduced to illustrate?—"He appeared to be a man of letters."—"The Apostles were determined to preach the Gospel." 19. By what tense of the infinitive must verbs denoting *hope, desire, intention, command*, be followed? 20. Why? 21. What must the perfect infinitive be used to express? 22. Illustrate by examples.

54TH EXERCISE.

CONNECTION OF TENSES.

In the following, say which are correct and which incorrect; state distinctly the principle violated in the false syntax, and correct it; give the construction of the words to which the rule or any remark applies, and repeat the rule.

1. The doctor said that fever always produces thirst. 2. I knew the family more than twenty years. 3. He has lately lost an only son. 4. After Columbus made his preparations, he set out on his voyage of discovery. 5. I should be obliged to him if he would gratify me in that particular. 6. We had hoped that Lord Nugent would have been able to collect much new and interesting information. 7. He should study diligently, that he may become learned. 8. We shall welcome him when he arrives. 9. From the little conversation I had with him, he appeared to be a man of learning. 10. Kirstall abbey, now in ruins, appears to have been an extensive building. 11. The philosopher said that heat always expanded metals. 12. I am now at school six months. 13. He has been formerly very disorderly. 14. When we had finished our lessons we went out to play. 15. Ye will not come to me, that ye may have life. 16. Columbus hoped that he would render the natives tributary to the crown of Spain. 17. We should respect

those persons, because they continued long attached to us. 18. As soon as he shall return we will recommence our studies. 19. Our friends intended to have met us. 20. Lycurgus, the Spartan law-giver, is said to be born in the nine hundred and twenty-sixth year before Christ. 21. He said that was immutable. 22. My brother was sick four weeks, and is no better. 23. I once or twice told the story to our friend before he went away. 24. He has done it yesterday. 25. Some one has long ago told the same story. 26. He that had been dead sat up and began to speak. 27. Be wise and good that you might be happy. 28. We expected that they would have come. 29. A prisoner is not accounted guilty till he be convicted. 30. He was afraid he would have died. 31. He tells lies long enough. 32. When he had arrived at the place, we delivered the letters which we previously procured. 33. He was told his danger, that he might shun it. 34. They have continued with me now three days. 35. It was a strange thing to me, for I had never seen such a thing before. 36. When I came, he was gone.

INTERJECTIONS.

814. RULE XVIII.—Interjections have no grammatical connection with other words in a sentence.

815. After interjections, pronouns of the first person are commonly in the objective case; those of the second in the nominative; as, "Ah me!"—"O thou!"

816. In neither of those, however, does the case depend on the interjection. The objective is commonly thought to be governed by a word understood; thus, "Ah [*pity*] *me!*"—"Ah [*what will become of me!*" The nominative form is commonly the independent by address.

ELLIPSIS.

817. As a general rule, the fewer the words are, by which we express our ideas,

the better, provided the meaning is clearly brought out. This may often be done without using all the words necessary to the full grammatical form of a sentence, and hence, as the tendency always is to abbreviate speech, such words as can be spared, according to the usage of the language, are properly omitted.

818. 1.—An ellipsis, or omission of words, is admissible when they can be supplied by the mind with such certainty and readiness as not to obscure the sense. Accordingly—

819. When the different clauses of a Compound Sentence have either the same subject, or the same predicate, or the same object, or the same extensions, the element which is common to each co-ordinate part is not necessarily repeated. For example—

EXTENDED FORM.	ABRIDGED FORM.
"Wheat grows well in this land, and barley grows well in this land."	"Wheat and barley grow well in this land."
"The hurricane tore down trees, and the hurricane overturned houses."	"The hurricane tore down trees and overturned houses."
"He is a wise man, he is a good man, he is a patriotic man."	"He is a wise, good, and patriotic man."
"God sends rain on the evil, and God sends rain on the good."	"God sends rain on the evil and on the good."

"He is an honest, learned, and well-bred man."

820. A variety of contractions may be combined in one sentence.

821. The verb *to be*, with its subject, in dependent clauses, is often omitted after the connectives, *if*, *though*, *yet*, *when*, &c.; as, "Study, if [*it is*] neglected, becomes irksome."—"Though [*he was*] poor, he was honest."

822. In poetry, verbs which express *address* or *answer*, are often omitted; as, "To him the prince [*replied*]." Also, when the words connected readily indicate what the verb must be, if expressed; as, "I'll *hence* to London"—"I'll *in*"—"*Away*, old man!"—*Shaks.*—"Up, up, Glenarkin!"—*W. Scott.*

823. ADVERB.—When an adverb modifies more words than one,

it is placed only with the last; as, "He spoke and acted *gracefully*"

824. Conjunction.—When several words and clauses come together in the same construction, the conjunction is sometimes omitted entirely, sometimes between each pair, and sometimes before all except the last; as, "He caused the blind to see, the lame to walk, the deaf to hear, the lepers to be cleansed."—"We ran hither and thither, seeking novelty *and* change—sympathy *and* pastime—communion *and* love."—"Youth is the season of joy, of bliss, of strength, *and* of pride."

825. Interjection.—The interjections are never omitted, but, in the expression of sudden emotion, all but the most important words are commonly omitted; as, "Well done!" for, "*That is* well done!" Also, after interjections, there is often an ellipsis of the obvious word; as, "O for a lodge," &c., that is, "*O how I long* for a lodge," &c.—"A horse! a horse! my kingdom for a horse!" that is, "*Bring me* a horse. *I would give* my kingdom for a horse."

826. 2.—An ellipsis is not allowable, when it would obscure the sentence, weaken its force, or be attended with an impropriety; as, "We speak that we do know," for *that which*, &c.

827. In general, no word should be omitted by ellipsis, that is necessary to the usual construction or harmony of a sentence, or to render the meaning perspicuous.

828. Articles, pronouns, and prepositions, should always be repeated when the words with which they stand connected are used emphatically. Under such circumstances, even nouns, adjectives, and verbs, must often be repeated; as, "Not only *the* year, but *the* day and *the* hour were appointed."

829. It is generally improper, except in poetry, to omit the antecedent to a relative; and it is always improper to omit a relative, when it is in the nominative.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

ELLIPSIS.

1. Under the head of Ellipsis, what is the general principle laid down? 2. What is the first rule given on the subject of ellipsis? 3. To what general principle may most instances of ellipsis be reduced? 4. Illustrate by example. 5. "Study, if neglected, becomes irksome,"—what principle of ellipsis does this sentence illustrate? 6. What omissions are very common in poetry? 7. Illustrate by an example. 8. What principle does the following sentence illustrate? 9. "He spoke and acted grace-

fully." 10. Under what circumstances is the connective either wholly or partially omitted? 11. Give examples. 12. After interjections what omissions are common? 13. Give examples. 14. When is an ellipsis not allowable, according to the second rule? 15. What words, as a general principle, should not be omitted? 16. Under what circumstances is it said that articles, pronouns, prepositions, and even nouns, adjectives and verbs, should not be omitted? 17. Illustrate by examples. 18. What is said of the omission of the antecedent to a relative, and of the relative itself? 19. Illustrate by examples.

55TH EXERCISE.

ON ELLIPSIS.

In the following sentences, omit such words as are not necessary to the sense, and refer the omission to its proper principle:—

1. Cicero was an eloquent man, an able man, a generous man, and he was a truly patriotic man. 2 I venerate him, I respect him, I love him, on account of his virtues. 3. Genuine virtue supposes our benevolence to be strengthened and to be confirmed by principle. 4. We often commend imprudently, as well as censure imprudently. 5. He is temperate, he is disinterested, he is benevolent. 6. He regards the truth, but thou dost not regard it. 7. Who best can suffer best can do. 8. A beautiful garden and trees were sold. 9. His honor, interest, religion, were all embarked in this undertaking. 10. Many days and even weeks passed away unimproved. 11. His conduct is not scandalous, and that is the best can be said of it. 12. That is a property most men have, or at least may attain. 13. This property has or will be sold. 14. You suppose him younger than I. 15. He may be said to have spared the life of a citizen, and consequently entitled to the reward 14. A noble spirit disdaineth the malice of fortune; his greatness of soul is not to be cast down.

PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES.

ON THE FOREGOING RULES AND PRINCIPLES.

In the following sentences some are correct and some are incorrect. Say which are correct and which are incorrect. State distinctly the principle violated in the incorrect sentences and correct

them. Give the construction of all incorrect words and of such others as may be called for.

56TH EXERCISE.

Too great a variety of studies perplex and weaken the judgment.—I called to see you, but you were not at home.—The crown of virtue is peace and honor.—In the human species, the influence of instinct and habit is generally assisted by the suggestions of reason.—They were both unfortunate, but neither of them were to blame.—We arrived safe at our journey's end.—That is a matter of no consequence between you and I.—They that seek knowledge will find it.—Our welfare and security consist in unity.—The love of virtue, and devotion to pleasure, is opposed to each other.—All the world are spectators of your conduct.—Nothing is more lovely than virtue.—He is taller than me, but I am stronger than him.—Neither riches or beauty furnish solid peace and contentment.—The abuse of mercies ripen us for judgments.—A man's manners frequently influence his fortune.—Much depends on this rule's being observed.—Such will ever be the effect of youth associating with vicious companions.—It has been fully shown that neither of them are correct.—Three months' notice are required to be given previous to a pupil's leaving of the school.—He employed another friend of his father to assert his claim—[whose claim?]—It is remarkable his continual endeavours to serve us.—Whatever antiquities he could procure, he purchased at any price.—I am not so well as when you were here.—This mode of expression has been formerly in use.

57TH EXERCISE.

He stated long ago that he had attended to the matter —Twice three are six.—As two are to four, so are six to twelve.—Five is the half of ten.—One man and one boy are sufficient.—Two are better than one.—Two are an even number—three are not.—Two are twice one.—Five men are too many for such a piece

of work — three are too few.—Molasses is thicker than water.—The measles are spreading through the country.—The news by the last arrival is better than was expected.—We hoped to have heard from you before this.—Do you not think he writes well?—James is as tall if not taller than I am.—He puts down the mighty and exalteth the humble.—Piety towards God, as well as sobriety and virtue, is necessary to happiness.—Take care who you admit into your friendship.—If I was him, I would take more care for the future.—We were in Havre when the revolution broke out at France.—That is the man and the horse which we met before.—George was the most enterprising young man whom I ever saw.—All that were present were pleased with the entertainment.—This excellent person was fully resigned either to live or to die.—To enjoy health and to live in peace, are great blessings.—Which dictionary do you prefer, Webster or Walker?

58TH EXERCISE.

Though this event be strange, it certainly did happen.—If he but consider the subject, he will no doubt change his opinion.—Ignorance is the mother of fear, as well as of admiration.—Among every class of people, self-interest prevails.—Many ridiculous customs have been brought into use during the last hundred years.—Is there no person who you can send on that bnsiness?—That is a property most men have, or at least may attain.—The pyramids of Egypt have stood more than three thousand years.—When the nation complain, the rulers should listen to their voice.—Who say the people that I am?—They that honor me, I will honor.—He only got the money for a few days.—He was evidently mistaken in his calculations.—No man is fit for free conversation, for the enquiry of truth, if he be exceedingly reserved; if he be haughty and proud of his knowledge; if he be positive and dogmatical in his opinions; if he be one who always affects to outshine all the company; if he be fretful and peevish; if he affect wit, and is full

of puns, or quirks or quibbles.—A good end does not warrant using of bad means.—Humility neither seeks the last place or the last word.—Either wealth or power may ruin its possessor.—Avoid lightness and frivolity; they are allied to folly.—Do you know to whom you are talking?—O that the winter was gone!—We can fully confide in none but the truly good.—He was accused of acting unfairly, or at least in a manner ill adapted to conciliating regard.

59TH EXERCISE.

There is more business done in New York than in any city of the United States.—If there were better management, there would be greater security.—Every year, every day, and every hour, brings its changes.—Whom say ye that I am?—Many a youth has ruined his prospects for life by one imprudent step.—No power was ever yet entrusted to man without liability to abuse.—A conceited fool is more abominable than other fools.—A constant display of graces are fatiguing to a sober mind.—Expectation and reality make up the sum total of life.—Music, the love of it, and the practice of it, seems to pervade all creation.—The intellectual and the moral censor both have the same ends in view.—I was engaged formerly in that business, but I never shall be again concerned in it.—We frequently do those things which we afterwards repent of.—Shall you attain success without that preparation, and escape dangers without that precaution which is required of others?—That picture of your mother is a very exact resemblance of her.—The winter has not been as severe as we expected it to have been.—In reference to that transaction, he deserved punishment as much or more than his companions.—Every one of those pleasures that are pursued to excess convert themselves into poison.—Thou Lord, who hast permitted affliction to come upon us, shalt deliver us from it in due time.—The sea appeared to be more than usually agitated.—By these attainments is the master honored and the scholar encouraged.—The temple consisted of one great and several smaller edifices.

ENGLISH COMPOSITION,

CONTAINING A BRIEF EXPOSITION OF ITS

GENERAL PRINCIPLES,

ACCOMPANIED WITH PROGRESSIVE EXERCISES,

DESIGNED TO BE TAKEN UP IN CONNECTION WITH PART III.

COMPOSITION is the art of arranging our thoughts and expressing them in appropriate language. It is of two kinds, Prose and Poetry.

Prose compositions are those in which the thoughts are expressed in the natural order, in common and ordinary language.

Poetic compositions are those in which the thoughts and sentiments are expressed in measured verse, in loftier and more inverted style, by words and figures selected and arranged so as to please the ear, and captivate the fancy.

In both of these, speech or discourse is either *direct* or *indirect*.

Direct discourse is that in which a writer or speaker delivers his own sentiments.

Indirect or *oblique* discourse is that in which a person relates, in his own language, what another speaker or writer said.

In the *first*, when the speaker refers to himself, he uses the *first* person *I* or *we*. When he refers to the person or persons addressed, he uses the *second* person *thou, you,* &c.

In the *second* or indirect discourse, whether the speaker is reported to be referring to himself, or to those whom he addresses, the third person is used in either case; as, *he, she, they, &c.* An example will best illustrate the distinction. Thus:

DIRECT DISCOURSE.

Then Paul stood in the midst of Mars hill and said: "Ye men of Athens, I perceive that in all things ye are too superstitious; for as I passed by and beheld your devotions, I found an altar with

this inscription: 'To the Unknown God.' Whom, therefore, ye ignorantly worship, him declare I unto you."

INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

The same, reported in indirect or oblique discourse, would run thus:

Then Paul, standing on Mars hill, told the men of Athens, *he* perceived that in all things *they* were too superstitious; for as *he* passed by and beheld *their* devotions, *he* found an altar with this inscription: "To the Unknown God." Whom, therefore, *they* ignorantly worshipped, him declared *he* unto them.

When the reporter, the speaker reported, and the person or persons addressed, are different in gender or number, there is no danger of ambiguity. But when in these respects they are the same, ambiguity is unavoidable, from the same pronoun being used in the progress of the discourse, to designate different persons. Hence, to prevent mistakes, it is often necessary to insert the name or designation of the person meant by the pronoun. An example will best illustrate this also:—

"Then the son went to his father and said to him, [*direct*] 'I have sinned against heaven and in thy sight."

"Then the son went to his father and said to him [*indirect*] that he (the son) had sinned against Heaven and in his (his father's) sight."

It will at once be perceived, that, without the words enclosed in brackets, for explanation, it would be impossible to tell whether by the word *he*, the *father* or the *son* was intended; *so* also with respect to the word *his*. Hence, when by the *indirect* discourse, ambiguity is unavoidable, it is generally better to have recourse to the *direct* form, and quote the writer's or speaker's own words.

The principal kinds of *prose* composition are—*narratives*, *letters*, *memoirs*, *history*, *biography*, *essays*, *philosophy*, *sermons*, *novels*, *speeches*, and *orations*.

The principal kinds of *poetical* composition are—the *epigram*, the *epitaph*, the *sonnet*, *pastoral* poetry, *didactic* poetry, *satires*, *descriptive* poetry, *elegy*, *lyric* poetry, *dramatic* poetry, and *epic* poetry.

THE USE OF GRAMMAR IN COMPOSITION.

To speak and write with propriety, in every species of composition, is an attainment of no small importance: and to lead to this attainment is the business of grammar. The grammar of a language is a just compilation of rules and directions, agreeably to which, that language is spoken or written. These rules, however, are not the invention of the grammarian, nor dependent on his authority for their validity. As it is the business of the

philosopher, not to *make* a law of Nature, not to *dictate* how her operations should be performed, but, by close observation, to ascertain what those laws are, and to state them for the information of others; so the business of the grammarian is, not to *make* the laws of language, for language is before grammar, but to observe and note those principles, and forms and modes of speech, by which men are accustomed to express their sentiments, and to arrange the result of his observation into a system of rules for the guidance and assistance of others. It is obvious, then, that the ultimate principle or *test* to which the rules laid down by the grammarian must conform, IS THE BEST USAGE.

Hence, when the inquiry is whether a particular word or form of speech is *right*, is *good English*, the only question to be decided is, "Is it according to the *good usage?*" On this subject, however, it has been made a question, "What is good usage?" The following sentiments, abridged from Dr. Crombie's work on English Etymology and Syntax, seem to be just, and comprehensive of this whole subject.

THE LAW OF LANGUAGE.

The USAGE which gives law to language, in order to establish its authority, or to entitle its suffrage to our assent, must be in the first place *reputable*, by which is meant, not the usage of the court, nor great men, nor merely scientific men; but of those whose works are *esteemed by the public*, and who may therefore be denominated *reputable* authors.

In the second place this usage must be *national*. It must not be confined to this or that province or district. "Those," to use Campbell's apposite similitude, "who deviate from the beaten road may be incomparably more numerous than those who travel in it; yet, in whatever number of by-paths the former may be divided, there may not be found in any one of these tracts so many as travel in the king's highway."

Thirdly, this usage must be *present*. It is difficult to fix with any precision what usage may in all cases be deemed *present*. It is perhaps in this respect different with different compositions. In general, words and forms of speech which have been long disused, should not be employed. And so, on the contrary, the usage of the present day is not implicitly to be adopted. Mankind are fond of novelty, and there is a fashion in language as there is in dress. Whim, vanity, and affectation, delight in creating new words, and using new forms of phraseology. Now, to adopt every new-fangled upstart at its birth, would argue, not taste, nor judgment, but childish fondness for singularity and novelty. But should any of these maintain its ground, and receive the sanction of reputable usage, it must in that case be received.

The usage, then, which gives law to language, and which is generally denominated good usage, must be *reputable, national,* and *present.* It happens, however, that "good usage" is not always uniform in her decisions, and that in unquestionable authorities are found far different modes of expression. In such cases, the following CANONS, proposed by Dr. Campbell, will be of service in enabling to decide to which phraseology the preference ought to be given. They are given nearly in the words of the author:—

CANON 1.—When usage is divided as to any particular words or phrases, and when one of the expressions is susceptible of a *different* meaning, while the other admits of only *one* signification, the expression which is strictly *univocal* should be preferred.

CANON 2.—In doubtful cases, *analogy* should be regarded.

CANON 3.—When expressions are in other respects equal, that should be preferred which is *most agreeable to the ear.*

CANON 4.—When none of the preceding rules apply, regard should be had *to symplicity.*

But though no expression or mode of speech can be justified which is not sanctioned by usage, yet the converse does not follow, that every phraseology sanctioned by usage should be retained. In many such cases, custom may properly be checked by criticism, whose province it is, not only to remonstrate against the introduction of any word or phraseology which may be either unnecessary or contrary to analogy, but also to exclude whatever is reprehensible, though in general use. It is by this, her prerogative, that languages are gradually refined and improved. In exercising this authority, she cannot pretend to degrade, instantly, any phraseology which she may deem objectionable; but she may, by repeated remonstrances, gradually effect its dismission. Her decisions in such cases may be properly regulated by the following rules, laid down by the same author:—

RULE 1.—All words and phrases, particularly harsh and not absolutely necessary, should be dismissed.

RULE 2.—When the etymology plainly points to a different signification from what the word bears, propriety and symplicity require its dismission.

RULE 3.—When words become obsolete, or are never used but in particular phrases, they should be repudiated, as they give the style an air of vulgarity and of cant, when this general disuse renders them obscure.

Rule 4.—All words and phrases which, analyzed grammatically, include a solecism, should be dismissed.

Rule 5.—All expressions which, according to the established rules of languages, either have no meaning, or involve a contradiction, or, according to the fair construction of the words, convey a meaning different from the intention of the speaker, should be dismissed.

HINTS FOR CORRECT AND ELEGANT WRITING.

Correct and elegant writing depends partly upon the choice of words, and partly upon the form and structure of sentences.

In order to write any language with grammatical purity, three things are required:—

1. That the words be all of that language. The violation of this rule is called a *barbarism*.

2. That they be construed and arranged according to the rules of syntax in that language. A violation of this rule is called a *solecism*.

3. That they be employed in that sense which usage has annexed to them. A violation of this rule is called *impropriety*.

A *barbarism* is an offence against lexicography. The *solecism* is an offence against the rules of syntax; and the *impropriety* is an offence against lexicography, by mistaking the meaning of words and phrases.

I. In so far as respects single words, the chief things to be observed are *purity*, *propriety*, and *precision*.

PURITY.

Purity consists in the rejection of such words and phrases as are not strictly English, nor in accordance with the practice of good writers or speakers.

1. Avoid foreign words and modes of expression; as, "*Fraicheur*"—"*politesse*"—"He repents him of his folly."

2. Avoid obsolete and unauthorized words; as, *albeit*, *aforetime*, *inspectator*, *judgmatical*.

PROPRIETY.

Propriety consists in the use of such words as are best adapted to express our meaning.

1. Avoid low and provincial expressions; as, "To get into a scrape."

2. In writing prose, reject words that are merely poetical; as, "This morn."—"The celestial orbs."

3. Avoid technical terms, unless you write to those who perfectly understand them.

4. Do not use the same word too frequently, or in different senses; as, The king communicated his intention to the minister, *who* disclosed it to the secretary, *who* made it known to the public."—"His own *reason* might have suggested better *reasons*."

5. Supply words that are wanting, and necessary to complete the sense. Thus, instead of "This action increased his former services." say, "This action increased the *merit* of his former services."

6. Avoid equivocal or ambigious expressions, as, "His *memory* shall be lost on the earth."

7. Avoid unintelligible and inconsistent expressions; as, "I have an *opaque* idea of what you mean."

PRECISION.

Precision rejects superfluous words.

1. Avoid tautology; as, "His *faithfulness* and *fidelity* are unequalled."

2. Observe the exact meaning of words accounted synonymous. Thus, instead of "Though his actions and intentions were good, he lost his *character*," say, "He lost his *reputation*."

II. With respect to sentences, *clearness*, *unity*, *strength*, and a proper application of the *figures of speech*, are necessary.

CLEARNESS.

Clearness demands a proper arrangement of words.

1. Adverbs, relative pronouns, and explanatory phrases, must be placed as near as possible to the words which they affect and in such a situation as the sense requires.

2. In prose, a poetic collocation must be avoided.

3. Pronouns must be so used as clearly to indicate the word for which they stand.

UNITY.

Unity retains one predominant object through a sentence, or a series of clauses.

1. Separate into distinct sentences such clauses as have no immediate connection.

2. The principal words must, throughout a sentence, be the most prominent, and the leading nominative should, if possible, be the subject of every clause.

3. Avoid the introduction of parentheses, except when a lively remark may be thrown in, without too long suspending the sense of what goes before.

STRENGTH.

Strength gives to every word, and every member, its due importance.

1. Avoid tautology, and reject all superfluous words and members. In the following sentence, the word printed in italics should be omitted: "Being conscious of his *own* integrity, he disdained submission."

2. Place the most important words in the situation in which they will make the strongest impression.

3. A weaker assertion should not follow a stronger; and, when the sentence consists of two members, the longer should be the concluding one.

4. When two things are compared or contrasted with each other, where either resemblance or opposition is to be expressed, some resemblance in the language should be preserved.

5. A sentence should not be concluded with a preposition, or any inconsiderable word or phrase, unless it is emphatic.

FIGURES OF SPEECH.

1. Figurative language must be used sparingly, and never, except when it serves to illustrate or enforce what is said.

2. Figures of speech, when used, should be such as appear natural, not remote or foreign from the subject, and not pursued too far.

3. Literal and figurative language ought never to be blended together.

4. When figurative language is used, the same figure should be preserved throughout, and different figures never jumbled together.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF COMPOSITION.

1. What is composition? 2. Explain the difference between prose and poetic composition. 3. Distinguish between direct and indirect discourse. 4. Illustrate by an example of each. 5. In indirect discourse, from what cause is there liability to ambiguity? 6. What are the principal kinds of prose composition? 7. Select a specimen of each, to be submitted, or read in the class. 8. What are the principal kinds of poetical composition? 9. Select a specimen of each, to be submitted, or read in the class. 10. What is the chief object to be kept in view in the study of English Gram-

mar? 11. Of what does the grammar of a language consist? 12. On what authority do the rules and principles laid down in grammar rest? 13. What, then, is the ultimate authority by which the correctness of these rules must be tested? 14. What, then, is the precise meaning of the enquiry,—"Is any particular word or form of speech right?" 15. What three characteristics must the usage, which gives law to language, possess? 16. What is meant by saying, the usage must be *reputable?* 17. To what is *reputable use* opposed? 18. What is meant by saying the usage must be *national?* 19. To what is national use opposed? 20. What is meant by saying the usage must be *present?* 21. To what is *present use* opposed? 22. Is good usage always uniform in her decisions? 23. When writers of authority differ, and good usage is divided, how are we to decide which shall have the preference? 24. How many canons are given to aid in deciding in such cases? 25. Repeat the *first* canon, and illustrate its application by an example? 26 Repeat the *second* canon, and illustrate its application by an example, 27. Repeat the *third* canon, and illustrate its application by an example. 28. Repeat the *fourth* canon, and illustrate its application by an example. 29. Does it follow that every expression sanctioned by good usage should be retained? 30. What, then, is the province of criticism? 31. How many rules are laid down to regulate criticism? 32. Repeat them, and give an illustration of the application of each. 33. In order to write or speak a language with *grammatical purity* what *three things* are required? 34. What is the violation of the first called? 35. Give an example. 36 What is a violation of the second called? 37. Give an example. 38. What is a violation of the third called? 39. Give an example. 40. Against what is each, respectively, an offence? 41. The correct and elegant use of language depends upon what? 42. So far as respects single words, what are the three chief things to be observed? 43. In what does *purity* consist? 44. What two classes of words does purity require to be avoided? 45. Give examples. 46. In what does propriety consist? 47. What six things does propriety require to be avoided? 48. Give an example of each. 49. What is required by *precision?* 50. What does precision require to be avoided and to be observed? 51. Give an illustration of each. 52. With respect to sentences, what four things are mentioned as necessary? 53. What is demanded by *clearness?* 54. What three things are specified as essential to *clearness?* 55. What is required by *unity?* 56. What three things are specified as requisite to secure unity? 57. What is demanded by *strength?* 58. What five directions are given to aid in securing this quality in sentences? 59. What four directions are given with reference to the use of figures?

ON THE COMPOSITION OF SENTENCES.

SIMPLE SENTENCES.

All thoughts are expressed by means of sentences.

The forming of sentences is therefore the first step in composition. The simple sentence is the basis of composition, and the foundation of all other sentences. It is called simple, because it is the expression of a single thought, and contains only one subject and one predicate.

All other sentences are merely combinations of simple sentences. They must, therefore, contain two or more subjects and two or more predicates.

The subject is that of which something is affirmed; the predicate is that which is affirmed of the subject.

EXAMPLES.

Subject.	*Predicate.*
1. Birds	fly.
2. Some birds	fly swiftly.
3. Some birds of prey	fly very swiftly.
4. Some birds of prey, having secured their prey	fly very swiftly with it to their nests.

In the first example we have the simplest form of the subject and predicate; in the other three we have expanded forms. (See example, page 135.)

When the predicate contains a transitive verb, it must be completed by its object.

EXAMPLE.

Subject.	*Predicate.*	*Object.*
1. My cousin	prepares	his lessons.
2. My earnest cousin	always prepares	his most difficult lessons.
3. My earnest cousin, William	always prepares thoroughly on Saturday	his most difficult Greek lessons.

1ST EXERCISE.

COMPOSITION OF SIMPLE SENTENCES.

1. *Simple Subject.*

Complete the sentences by supplying simple subjects.

Flows from the mountain. Are covered with scales. Revolves round the sun. Moans through the trees. Fought bravely. Is conducive to health. Is attended with difficulty. Was the father of Alexander the Great. Live by Carnage. Constitute the Canadian Parliament. Would here be out of place. Are the comforts of home. Agreed in our opinion. Is the soul of friendship.

The teacher can extend these exercises, should it be thought necessary.

2ND EXERCISE.

Expanded Subjects.

Complete the sentences in the last exercise, by supplying expanded subjects.

3RD EXERCISE.

Simple Predicate.

Complete the sentences by supplying appropriate *simple* predicates.

The grateful mind. The sun. The dew. Quarrelsome persons. Some species. An unruly tongue. A dark cloud. Most men. Each year. Nothing in nature. The veteran warrior. Some ants. The Nile. The soil of Canada. The City of Toronto. The river St. Lawrence. Toronto University. The confederation of the Provinces. The Grand Trunk Railway. The Victoria bridge. The fortress at Quebec. The city of Montreal. The maple tree. The British soldier. Patriotism.

4TH EXERCISE.

Expanded Predicate.

Complete the sentences in the last exercise by supplying appropriate expanded predicates.

5TH EXERCISE.

Compose four simple sentences on each of the following words.

EXAMPLE—MAPLE SUGAR.

Maple sugar is made from the sap of the maple tree. Maple sugar is made in the spring. A large proportion of the maple sugar is made by Indians. When the snow is deep the labour of making maple sugar is greatly increased.

Night, day, animals, air, dog, horse, bird, fish, river, school, teacher, grammar, geography, plants, gold, wisdom, silence, boys, ship, wind, earthquake, beggar, artist.

COMPOUND SENTENCES.

6TH EXERCISE.

Copulative Co-ordination.

Complete the following compound sentences, by supplying *copulative* sentences.

Plants live and. Gold is hard and. The robbers were captured and. In spring the trees put forth their buds. He is of a different opinion, *however*. The captain was aware of it, *moreover*. Indians are said to be treacherous, they are *also*. Did the king not consent to that; did he not *likewise*.—The time was lost *as well as*. The bill was reported to the house—*furthermore*, We have generally several cold days in succession, *then*—. I was influenced *both* by the wishes of his friends *and*—. Napoleon as well as Hanibal—. Intemperance not only brings poverty, it also—.

7TH EXERCISE.

Disjunctive Co-ordination.

Complete the following compound sentences by supplying disjunctive sentences.

Neither time nor money —. The money must be paid, else —. The objects around us are either —. Never procrastinate, else —. The company for four days, neither advanced —. Circumstances were favourable, otherwise —. He was neither attentive to his own interests, —. Either retrace your steps, —. You must either attend to your duties more diligently, —. Such persons

seldom or never —. Either carelessness has caused the mistake, —.

Write ten compound sentences, using different disjunctive connectives if possible.

8TH EXERCISE.

Adversative Co-ordination.

Complete the following compound sentences by supplying adversative sentences.

He is indolent, nevertheless —. We are now in comfortable circumstances —. I can trust to what you promise, but —. Circumstances look discouraging; however —. Things look promising, yet —. Such conduct is not merely praiseworthy —. He looked at her sorrowfully, but —. The vine still clings to the mouldering wall, but —. The landlord has his rights; on the other hand —. He is a good man, though —. War is attended with desolating effects, yet —. The life of the idle seems to be one of enjoyment, nevertheless —.

Write ten compound sentences, using different adversative connectives if possible.

9TH EXERCISE.

Complete the following compound sentences by supplying illative sentences.

I have been most attentive to business; therefore —. I cannot remain long, for —. I hope the day will be fine, for —. You admit the principle, accordingly —. The facts more than counterbalance what has been advanced on the other side, consequently —. Nothing is more uncertain than life —. I knew well that these were not his sentiments —.

Write ten compound sentences, using different illative connectives if possible.

COMPLEX SENTENCES.

When the simple sentences that are combined consist of one or more principal sentences with subordinate clauses, each principal sentence, with its subordinates, forms a complex sentence.

1. When the subordinate sentence forms the subject

or object of the verb in the principal sentence, or sustains to the principal sentence any of the relations of a noun, it is called a *noun sentence;* as, I see *that you are in a hurry.*

2. When the subordinate is used to qualify a noun in the principal sentence, it is called an *adjective sentence;* as, This is the person *whom we met.*

3. When the subordinate sentence performs the office of an adverb by modifying the verb or some secondary attribute in the principal sentence, it is called an adverbial sentence; as, "I will call *when I return.*"

10TH EXERCISE.

Noun Sentences.

Complete the following complex sentences by supplying noun sentences or principal sentences, as may be required.

I hear that —. — is unjust. — That the earth is round. — is uncertain. How you managed it —. You did not inform me —. — that he was engaged all the evening. My desire is —. Newton proved that —. When letters first came into use —. It is probable —. They told me —. The general opinion is. — —what you have stated. We cherish the hope—. I was anxious—. Why the purchase was not completed —. The cause of anxiety was —.

Write ten complex sentences having noun subordinates.

11TH EXERCISE.

Adjective Sentence.

Complete the following complex sentences by supplying adjective sentences or principal sentences, as may be required.

The gentlemen — approved of the proposal. The architect condemned the work —. The banner — is to be presented today. I called at a shop —. The place — is some distance off. Rain fertilizes those fields —. — which affords so many re-

sources in solitude had no charms for him. — that stretches along Lake Ontario. The choice of a spot — did not cause much delay. There are many circumstances —.

Write *ten* complex sentences having adjective subordinates.

12TH EXERCISE.

Complex Sentences.

Complete the following complex sentences by supplying adverbial sentences, or principal sentences, as may be required.

Where'er we tread—. Thou shalt honour thy father and mother that—. When I was made aware of the fact—. The order you become—. Study so—. The building is much larger than—. When the sun rises—. As we sow—. The longer you continue—. —as could be expected. —because things are so unsettled. — if I can get there in time. —although business is dull. Labour that—.

Write *ten* complex sentences having adverbial subordinates, using different connectives of *time, place, manner, cause.*

13TH EXERCISE.

Combining Sentences.

Combine the simple sentences in each of the following paragraphs into compound and complex sentences, as may be necessary to produce a correctly composed and continuous narrative.

The hyena is a fierce animal. The hyena is a solitary animal. The hyena is found chiefly in the desolate parts of the Torrid Zone.

The oak upbraided the willow. The willow was weak. The willow was wavering. The willow gave way to every blast. Soon after it blew a hurricane. The willow yielded. The willow gave way. The oak stubbornly resisted. The oak was torn up by the roots.

The Strait of Gibraltar leads into the Mediterranean. The Mediterranean is a series of inland seas. These seas wash the shores of Rome. These seas wash the shores of Carthage. These seas wash the shores of Syria. These seas wash the shores of Egypt.

Cotys was king of Thrace. Cotys got a present of earthen vessels. The earthen vessels were exquisitely wrought. The earthen vessels were extremely brittle. Cotys broke them into pieces. Cotys did not wish to have occasion of anger against his servants.

Octavius, Lepidus, and Antonius, attained supreme power at Rome. They proscribed Plancus. Plancus had once been consul. Plancus therefore fled for his life. His slaves were seized. They were put to the torture. They refused to discover him. New torments were prepared. Plancus would no longer save himself at the expnse of so faithful servants. Plancus came from his hiding place. He submitted to the swords of the messengers. The messengers sought his life. This was a noble example of mutual affection between a master and his slaves. It procured a pardon for Plancus. All the world exclaimed, that Plancus only was worthy of so good servants. All the world exclaimed that they only were worthy of so good a master.

A bear was pained by the sting of a bee. The bear ran quite mad into the bee-garden. The bear overturned all the hives. This outrage brought upon him an army of bees. The bear was almost stung to death. The bear then reflected. To pass over one injury would have been prudent. By rash passion he had provoked a thousand injuries.

Alphonso was king of Sicily. Alphonso was king of Naples. Alphonso was remarkable for kindness to his subjects. Alphonso was remarkable for condescension to his subjects. At one time Alphonso was travelling privately through Campania. Alphonso came up to a muleteer. The muleteer's beast had stuck in the mud. The muleteer could not draw it out with all his strength. The poor man had implored the aid of every passenger in vain. He now sought assistance from the king. He did not know who the king was. Alphonso instantly dismounted form his horse. Alphonso helped the man. Alphonso soon freed the mule. Alphonso soon brought it upon safe ground. The muleteer learned that it was the king. The muleteer fell on his knees. The muleteer asked his pardon. Alphonso removed his fears. Alphonso told him that he had given no offence. This goodness of the king reconciled many to him. Many had formerly opposed him.

14TH EXERCISE.

Resolving Compound into Simple Sentences.

4. Resolve the following narratives into simple sentences; and punctuate properly.

1. Sir James Thornhill a disguised painter was employed in

decorating the interior of the dome of St. Paul's Cathedral one day wishing to observe the effect of a certain part of his work he moved backwards from it along the scaffolding until he had reached the very edge another step would have dashed him to pieces on the pavement below his servant at this moment observed his danger and in an instant threw a pot of paint at the picture Sir James immediately rushed forward to chastise the man for his apparently unjustifiable conduct but when the reason was explained he could not give him sufficient thanks or sufficiently admire his ready ingenuity had the servant called out to apprise him of his danger he would probably have lost his footing and been killed.

2. One fine morning in summer two bees set out in quest of honey the one wise and temperate the other careless and extravagant they soon arrived at a garden enriched with aromatic herbs fragrant flowers and delicious fruits and they regaled themselves on these various dainties the one loaded his thighs with provisions for the hive against winter the other revelled in sweets without regard to anything but his present gratification at length they came to a phial that hung beneath the bough of a peach tree filled with honey and exposed to their taste in a most alluring manner the thoughtless epicure in spite of his friend's remonstrances plunged headlong into the vessel resolving to indulge himself his companion on the other hand sipped a little with caution but being suspicious of danger flew off to fruits and flowers where by the moderation of his meals. he improved his relish for the true enjoyment of them in the evening however he called upon his friend to inquire whether he would return to the hive but he found him surfeited in sweets which he was as unable to leave as to enjoy clogged in his wings enfeebled in his limbs and his whole frame totally enervated he was just able to bid his friend adieu and to lament with his latest breath that though a taste of pleasure may quicken the relish of life an unrestrained indulgence leads to inevitable destruction.

PUNCTUATION.

Punctuation is the art of dividing written compositions by means of points. The rules to a certain extent are arbitrary, some writers employing more points than others. A great number should be avoided as tending to obscure the sense.

The points in common use are:—

Comma (,) Semicolon (;) Colon (:) Period (.)
The following marks are also used in writing:—Note

of Interrogation (?) Note of Exclamation (!) Curves ( ) Inverted Commas (" ") Apostrophe (') Hyphen (-) Paragraph.

COMMA.

In compound and complex sentences, the co-ordinate and subordinate sentences are generally separated by commas. In simple sentences, the comma generally marks off:—(1) Nouns in apposition, when accompanied by adjuncts. (2) Some adverbs, parenthetical, adverbial and prepositional phrases. (3) Words of the same part of speech following each other without a conjunction singly or in pairs. (4) Participial phrases. (5) Words contracted or in opposition. (6) Words denoting the persons or objects in a direct address. (7) The place of a word or of words understood. (8) Some introductory conjunctions.

(9) A direct quotation is indicated by using inverted commas before and after it.

EXAMPLES.

(1) Homer, the greatest poet of antiquity, is said to have been blind. (2) It soon became evident, however, that. My duty, said he, is to instruct you. My own opinion, at least, favours the proposal. The king, in the mean time, learns the disasters of his army. (3) She is a discreet, benevolent, and pious woman. Truth is fair and artless, simple and sincere, uniform and consistent. (4) Labour, diving deep into the earth, brings up the hidden metals. (5) She was poor, but contented. (6) Remember, my son.—My lords, these enormities cry for vengeance. (7) To err is human; to forgive, divine. (8) That is not, however, what I mean. (9) "Sir," says the dervise, "give me leave to ask your majesty a question or two."

15TH EXERCISE.

COMMA.

In the following compound and complex sentences, mark off the

co-ordinate and subordinate sentences, by commas where they are required; supply all other commas omitted.

Aurelian was invested with the consulship by Valerian who styled him the deliverer of Illyricum. When the wise men came out of the east to Jerusalem they asked for the new-born king of Judea. It was so cold in the year 1830 that Lake Constance was frozen. Civilization which brings man out of a savage state consists in multiplying the number of occupations. When the little chickens come out of the egg, they are able to run. When Herod heard of the new king of Judea he was frightened. A dervise was journeying alone in a desert when two merchants suddenly met him. Many of the talents we now possess and of which we are too apt to be proud will cease entirely with the present state. They were the sweetest notes I ever heard and I instantly let down the glass to hear them more distinctly. On a spring evening on whichever side I turn my eyes myriads of happy beings crowd upon my view. The amusement of letters which affords so many resources in solitude, was incapable of fixing the attention of Diocletian. The choice of a spot which united all that could contribute either to health or to luxury did not require the partiality of a native. There is sweet music here that softer falls than petals from blown roses on the grass. I keep smooth plats of fruitful ground where thou mayest warble eat and dwell. How much less in them that dwell in houses of clay whose foundation is in the dust. There are many injuries which almost every man feels though he does not complain. When Columbus had finished speaking the sovereigns sank upon their knees. While he was talking thus the place the old man's shape both troubled me. When you are tempted to resent an injury reflect with yourselves Has God no account against you? After the most violent shock had ceased the clouds of dust began to disperse. When the spray had fallen again the glittering domes had vanished. Elder-berries are ripe at this season and an excellent domestic wine is made from them. I hope we shall have another good day to-morrow for the clouds are red in the west. Hazel-nuts grow profusely in some parts of this country but they are in much greater demand than our produce will supply. Walnut-trees are fine ornaments to farms and they are of great utility also. Just give me liberty to speak and I will come to an explanation with you. He looked at her sorrowfully but without manifesting either vexation or surprise. The clergy were much displeased at the fashion and one clergyman is said to have preached a sermon against it. Much silver was coined in Henry the First's time but little gold and no copper was used. The castles were very large but there was little room for comfort. He was a bad man therefore he was not respected by his subjects. The dying king begged to be attended by his confessor but she denied him even this comfort.

Through faith we understand that the world was made by the word of God so that things which are seen are not made of things that do appear. War is attended with desolating effects, for it is confessedly the scourge of our angry passions. The life of the queen bee seems to be all enjoyment yet it is only an idle life.

16TH EXERCISE.

COMMA.

Insert commas where required in the following simple sentences, and correct those that are wrong.

The God of our faith, dwells in light inaccessible. The frequent study of the great volume of nature is sufficiently worth the attention of man. That men are afflicted with sorrow and misery is frequently the consequence of their own actions. King, John of France was taken prisoner in battle. Charles V. King of Spain and Emperor of Germany died in a convent. Socrates the Greek philosopher, never gave way to anger. The Roman emperor Severus died at York. The soil of Campania being full of sulphur the water contracts a disagreeable taste. Virtue strengthens in adversity moderates in prosperity supports in sickness and comforts in the hour of death. The study of astronomy expands, and elevates the mind. The less we are able to comprehend the works of nature the more eagerly should we seize every opportunity of inquiring into them. He is a good man, who readily forgives an injury. If the world were to see our real motives we should be ashamed of some of our best actions. When I stand upon the summit of some lofty cliff and see the star of day rise slowly out of the ocean I feel a mingled sensation of sublimity and adoration. Mountains then we find are essential to the due preservation of the earth. With respect to man no doubt there are many new things which take place in the earth. In the first place let us represent to ourselves the immense space, in which the heavenly bodies are placed. In short the wisdom, and goodness of God are conspicuous in all parts of the creation. Avoid as much as possible the company of the wicked. "Habit" says the proverb "is a second nature." The soul can understand, will, imagine, see, hear, love, and discourse. A man that is temperate generous valiant faithful and honest may at the same time have wit humour mirth and good-breeding. The characteristics of chivalry, were valour humanity courtesy justice and honour. Power riches and prosperity are sometimes conferred on the worst of men. The wise, and the foolish the virtuous, and the evil the learned, and the ignorant the temperate, and the profligate must often be blended together. Absalom's beauty Jonathan's love

David's valour and Solomon's wisdom though faintly amiable in the creature are found in unspeakable perfection in the Creator. Manners and customs virtues and vices knowledge and ignorance principles and habits are with little variation transmitted from one generation to another. My son give me thy heart. Observe I beseech you men of Athens how different your conduct appears, from the practices of your ancestors. Romans countrymen and lovers! Hear me for my cause. Go then ye defenders of your country accompanied with every auspicious omen. Stop O mighty stream in thy course! Go to the ant thou sluggard. Poverty is apt to betray a man into envy; riches into arrogance. The vineyards of France, may be called our gardens; the Spice Islands our hotbeds; the Persians our silk weavers; and the Chinese our potters. Meekness controls our angry passions; candour our severe judgments. The poet says that anger is a short madness. Ovid says that it is a sort of pleasure to weep. Swift observes that no wise man, ever wished himself younger. It is written by Solomon that the wise shall inherit glory. It is remarked by Pope that fools have an itching to deride. It is an ancient saying that history is philosophy, teaching by example. Hannibal acted upon the maxim that the Romans could be conquered only at Rome. Vanity of vanities saith the preacher all is vanity. The Emperor exclaimed to those around him: My friends I have lost a day! The preacher first broke silence with the following quotation: Socrates died like a philosopher; Jesus Christ like a God. Descending from his throne and ascending the scaffold he said: Live incomparable pair. The mountain before thee said he is the Hill of Science.

THE SEMICOLON.

Co-ordinate sentences are often separated by a semicolon. (1) When the statements are not necessarily connected. (2) Antithetical or adversative clauses. (3) When the connective is omitted. (4) When one clause is added to another to explain or illustrate its meaning.

EXAMPLES.

(1) A friend cannot be known in prosperity; and an enemy cannot be hidden in adversity. (2) Learning is preferable to riches; but virtue is preferable to both. (3) Let the busy and the active withdraw themselves for a time from the agitation of the world; let them mark the desolation of summer; let them listen to the winds of winter, that begin to murmur above their heads. (4) Blessed are the meek; for they shall inherit the earth.

17TH EXERCISE.

SEMICOLON.

Mark the semicolons and other points required in the following sentences:—

The Dutch have a saying that thefts never enrich, alms never impoverish, prayers hinder no work. The most remarkable precious stones are the diamond which is colourless and transparent, the sapphire blue, the topaz yellow, the amethyst purple, and the garnet a deep red. The first nations who paid attention to architecture were the Babylonians who built the Temple of Belus and the hanging gardens, the Assyrians who filled Nineveh with splendid buildings, the Phœnicians whose cities were adorned with magnificent structures, and the Israelites whose temple was considered wonderful. His manner was humble, but his spirit was haughty. When the righteous are in authority the people rejoice, but when the wicked beareth rule the people mourn. The duty of a soldier is to obey his general; not to direct him. Your enemies may be formidable by their numbers and their power, but He who is with you is mightier than they. We have taken up arms not to betray our country but to defend it. The dog wolf and bear are sometimes known to live on vegetables or farinaceous food but the lion the tiger the leopard and other animals of this class devour nothing but flesh. Blessed are they that mourn for they shall be comforted. The pride of wealth is contemptible the pride of learning is pitiable the pride of dignity is ridiculous the pride of bigotry is insupportable. Mary was impatient of contradiction, because she had been accustomed from her infancy to be treated as a queen.

THE COLON.

The colon is not often used, the semicolon or period being used in its place. (1) It is used before a direct quotation. (2) When a sentence complete in sense and construction is followed by a remark or illustration, without using a connective. (3) Before the concluding clause of that elaborate kind of sentence called a period.

18TH EXERCISE.

THE COLON.

Mark the colons and other points required in the following sentences:—

Choose what is most fit, custom will make it most agreeable.

I do not repine at my condition, it is the decree of Heaven. Guard with vigilance against the habit of procrastination, nothing is more injurious to success in life. The origin of a virtuous and happy life is derived from early years whoever would reap happiness in old age must plant virtue in youth. To reason with him was vain he was infatuated. The feebleness of the body and the weakness of the mind the dimness of the eye and the failure of the limbs the restless night and the day that can no longer be enjoyed; these are some of the frailties and afflictions of old age as described by the sacred Preacher. Since man is on his very entrance into the world the most helpless of all creatures since he is for a series of years entirely dependent on the support and protection of others, and since he must at last be laid down in the dust from which he was taken, how vain and absurd does it appear that such a being should indulge in worldly pride! In my youth I saw the sepulchre of Cyrus, which bore this inscription; I am Cyrus, he who subdued the Persian empire.

THE PERIOD.

The period indicates when a sentence is ended. It is also used after abbreviations; as, D.D., Rev.

19TH EXERCISE.

PERIOD.

Mark off the sentences, and supply the points required in the following passage :—

Death is the king of terrors religion breathes a spirit of gentleness and affability a man can not live pleasantly unless he lives wisely and honestly honor glory and immortality are promised to virtue the happiness allotted to man in his present state is indeed faint and low compared with his immortal prospects it is miserable we think to be deprived of the light of the sun to be shut out from life and conversation and to be laid in the cold grave a prey to corruption and the reptiles of the earth the happiness of the dead however most assuredly is affected by none of these circumstances nor is it the thought of these things which can disturb the profound serenity of their repose.

The student obtained the degree of AM Jerusalem was destroyed by Titus AD 70 at the death of Charles IV of France his nearest heirs were his sister Isabella mother of Edward III and his cousin-german Philip of Valois then shall the kingdom of Heaven be likened unto ten virgins Matt XXV 1.

INTERROGATION, EXCLAMATION. DASH, AND PARENTHESIS.

The INTERROGATION point is used after a sentence that asks a question.

Example.—"When will you return?"

The EXCLAMATION point is used after an exclamatory sentence.

Example.—"What an unhappy circumstance!"

(1.) The DASH is used to mark an abrupt break in a sentence. (2.) Sometimes to mark the repetition of the same construction.

Example, (1.) "His children—but here my heart began to bleed." (2.) "He was so young—so intelligent—so brave so everything that we are apt to like in youth."

CURVES OR BRACKETS are used when a phrase or clause is introduced into a sentence, for explanation, without entering into its construction. Two Dashes are sometimes used instead of Brackets.

Example.—"The appointment of my friend (if he will permit me to call him so) gave me pleasure."

The APOSTROPHE marks the place of an omitted letter; as, o'er, sum'd.

The HYPHEN joins the part of a newly formed, or unusual compound word; as, gun-cotton, wooden-limbed.

The PARAGRAPH is indicated by an indented line. It is used to divide, into distinct parts, a discourse, the sentences of which are closely connected in narrative, sentiment, &c.

20TH EXERCISE.

Interrogation, Exclamation, Dash, and Parenthesis.

Mark these points where required.

Approach O man and try what thy wisdom and thy power can execute. Canst thou make one tree to blossom or one leaf to germinate. Canst thou call from the earth the smallest blade of grass

or order the tulip to rise in all its splendour. Contemplate these flowers. Examine them with attention.

How delightful is the face of nature when the morning light first dawns upon a country embosomed in snow. The thick mist which obscured the earth and concealed every object from our view at once vanishes! How beautiful to see the hills the forests and the groves all sparkling in white What a delightful combination these objects present Observe the brilliancy of those hedges.

Here lies the great false marble where. Our fathers each man was a god. And we shall we die in our chains. If thou beest he but oh how fallen.

> And thou the billows' queen even thy proud form
> On our glad sight no more perchance may swell.

He gained from Heaven 'twas all he wished a friend The distance of the nearest of these fixed stars or suns for suns they are proved to be is at least twenty billion miles What are our views of all worldly things and the same appearances they would always hav› if the same thoughts were always predominant when a sharp or tedious sickness has set death before our eyes and the last hour seems to be approaching.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS

ON PUNCTUATION.

What are the principal marks used in punctuation? What is the rule for the use of the comma in co-ordinate and subordinate sentences? Select a sentence for illustration. In simple sentences what parts are generally separated by the comma? Select a sentence to illustrate each. What co-ordinate sentences are generally separated by semicolons? Select a sentence to illustrate each case. Under what circumstances is the colon used? Select sentences for illustration. For what purpose is the period used? What use is made of the Interrogation and Exclamation points? What use is made of the Dash, Brackets, Apostrophe, and Hyphen?

21st EXERCISE.

GENERAL EXERCISE IN PUNCTUATION.

Supply all points omitted in the following narrative, and separate into paragraphs.

In that season of the year when the serenity of the sky the various fruits which cover the ground the discoloured foliage of the trees and all the sweet but fading graces of inspiring autumn open the mind to benevolence and dispose it to contemplation I was

wandering in a beautiful and romantic country till curiosity began to give way to weariness sitting down on the fragment of a rock overgrown with moss the rustling of the fallen leaves the dashing of waters and the hum of the distant city soothed my mind into tranquillity and as I was indulging in the agreeable reveries which the objects around me naturally inspired I was insensibly overcome by sleep I immediately fancied myself in a vast extended plain in the middle of which arose a mountain whose height surpassed any of my previous conceptions it was covered with a multitude of people chiefly youth many of whom pressed forward with the liveliest expressions of ardour in their countenance though the way was in many places steep and difficult I observed that those who had just begun to climb the hill thought themselves not far from the top but as they proceeded new hills were continually rising to their view till the mountain at length appeared to lose itself in the clouds as I was gazing on these things with astonishment my good genius suddenly appeared the mountain before thee said he is the Hill of Science on the top is the temple of Truth whose head is above the clouds and a veil of pure light covers her face observe the progress of her votaries be silent and attentive I saw that the only regular approach to the mountain was by a gate called the Gate of Languages it was kept by a woman of a pensive and thoughtful appearance whose lips were continually moving as if she repeated something to herself her name was Memory on entering this first enclosure I was stunned with a confused murmur of jarring voices and dissonant sounds which increased upon me to such a degree that I was utterly confounded and could compare the noise to nothing but the confusion of tongues at Babel after contemplating these things I turned my eyes towards the top of the mountain where the air was always pure and exhilarating where the path was shaded with laurels and other evergreens and the effulgence which beamed from the face of the goddess seemed to shed a glory round her votaries happy said I are those who are permitted to ascend the mountain while I was pronouncing this exclamation with uncommon ardour I saw standing beside me a form of diviner features and a more benign radiance happier said she are those whom Virtue conducts to the mansions of Content what said I does virtue then reside in the vale I am found said she in the vale and I illuminate the mountain I cheer the cottager at his toil and inspire the sage at his meditation I mingle in the crowd of cities and bless the hermit in his cell I have a temple in every heart that owns my influence and to him that wishes for me I am already present Science may raise you to eminence but I alone can guide to felicity while the goddess was thus speaking I stretched out my arms towards her with a vehemence which broke my slumbers the chill dews were falling around me and the shades of evening stretched over the landscape I hastened homeward and resigned the night to silence and meditation.

DICTATION.

22ND EXERCISE.

I. Write to dictation the following narrative, inserting the points and capital letters, and forming the paragraphs.

Edward III., after the battle of Cressy, laid siege to Calais. He had fortified his camp in so impregnable a manner, that all the efforts of France proved ineffectual to raise the siege or throw succors into the city. The citizens, under Count Vienne, their gallant governor, made an admirable defence. France had now put the sickle into her second harvest, since Edward, with his victorious army sat down before the town. The eyes of all Europe were intent on the issue. At length, famine did more for Edward than arms. After suffering the most dreadful calamities, they resolved to attempt the enemy's camp. They boldly sallied forth; the English joined battle; and, after a long and desperate engagement, Count Vienne was taken prisoner, and the citizens who survived the slaughter retired within their gates.

The command now devolving upon Eustace St. Pierre, a man of mean birth, but of exalted virtue, he offered to capitulate with Edward, provided he permitted them to depart with life and liberty. Edward, to avoid the imputation of cruelty, consented to spare the inhabitants, provided they delivered up to him six of their principal citizens with halters about their necks, as victims of atonement for that spirit of rebellion with which they had inflamed the people. When his messenger Sir Walter Mauny delivered the terms, consternation and pale dismay were impressed on every countenance. To a long and dead silence, deep sighs and groans succeeded, till Eustace St. Pierre, ascending an eminence, thus addressed the assembly: "My friends, we are brought to great straits this day. Is there any expedient left whereby we may avoid the guilt and infamy of delivering up those who have suffered every misery with you, or the desolation and horror of a sacked city? There is, my friends; there is one expedient left! Is there any here to whom virtue is dearer than life? Let him offer himself an oblation for the safety of his people. He shall not fail of a blessed approbation from that Power who offered up his only Son for the salvation of mankind."

He spoke; but a universal silence ensued. Each man looked around for the example of that virtue and magnanimity which all wished to approve in themselves, though they wanted the resolution. At length St. Pierre resumed: "I doubt not that there are many here more zealous of this martyrdom than I can be; though the station to which I am raised by the captivity of Lord Vienne invests me with the right to be the first in giving up my life for

your sakes. I give it freely; I give it cheerfully. Who comes next! "Your son," exclaimed a youth not yet come to maturity. "Ah! my child!" cried St. Pierre; "I am then twice sacrificed. But no; thy years are few, but full, my son. The victim of virtue has reached the utmost purpose and goal of mortality! Who next, my friends? This is the hour of heroes." "Your kinsman," cried John de Aire. "Your kinsman," cried James Wissant "Your kinsman," cried Peter Wissant. "Ah!" exclaimed Sir Walter Mauny, bursting into tears, "why was not I a citizen of Calais!" The sixth victim was still wanting, but was quickly supplied by lot from numbers who were now emulous of so ennobling an example. The keys of the city were then delivered to Sir Walter. He took the six prisoners into his custody; then ordered the gates to be opened, and gave charge to his attendants to conduct the remaining citizens with their families through the camp of the English. Before they departed, however, they desired permission to take the last adieu of their deliverers. What a parting! What a scene! They crowded about St. Pierre and his fellow-prisoners. They embraced; they clung around; they fell prostrate before them; they groaned; they wept aloud; and the joint clamour of their mourning passed the gates of the city, and was heard throughout the English camp.

23RD EXERCISE.

SENTENCES TO ILLUSTRATE THE RULES FOR PUNCTUATION.

1. Write six sentences in each of which a comma is required.

2. Write six sentences in each of which two commas are required.

3. Write six sentences in each of which three commas are required.

4. Write six sentences in each of which four commas are required.

5. Write six sentences in each of which a semicolon is required.

6. Write six sentences in each of which two semicolons are required.

7. Write six sentences in each of which a colon is required.

8. Write six sentences in each of which a point of interrogation is required.

9. Write six sentences in each of which a point of exclamation is required.

10. Write from memory the Lord's Prayer, inserting the points.

THE ELEMENTS OF STYLE.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

From Kearl's Comprehensive Grammar.

In speaking or writing, we should avoid *redundancy, deficiency, tautology, ambiguity, obscurity, affectation, pedantry, vulgarity, silliness, falseness, absurdity, nonsense, self-contradiction,* and any phraseology that is not the best the language affords.

In general, the fewer the words we use to express our meaning, the better. Many of the most esteemed and durable paragraphs in our literature, are such as tell much in very few words. It is easy to multiply words; but it is disagreeable to be obliged to read through a large volume, to get what might have been told us as well in a small pamphlet.

To the abundant or excessive use of words, we commonly apply the terms *verbosity, pleonasm, redundancy,* and *tautology. Verbosity* implies the use of circuitous expressions, or it is the telling of things in a round-about way: it is opposed to *sententiousness* or *conciseness.* "They who first settled in the country, made choice of the most desirable lands; better, "The first settlers took the best lands." *Pleonasm* is the use of some word or expression that is not essential, but still adds to the vigor of the sentence; as, "I saw it with my own eyes;" "Busk ye, busk ye, my bonny, bonny bride;" "One of the few, the immortal names, that were not born to die." *Redundancy* is a needless repetition of words, or a needless fullness of expression; as, "We both of us went on the same day, and, besides, moreover, we both of us returned back on the same day;" corrected, "Both of us went and returned the same day." *Tautology* is the telling of the same thing, or nearly the same thing, again and again, in other ways. "The dawn is overcast, the morning lowers, and heavily in clouds brings on the day."—*Addison, as quoted and criticised by Johnson.* "Let observation, with extensive view, survey mankind from China to Peru."—*Johnson himself.* As much as to say, "Let *observation,* with extensive *observation, observe* mankind from China to Peru. Law and lawyers abound in tautology and redundancy, and sometimes in needless technical terms.

It is generally much easier to find other ways of telling the same thing, than to add more new thoughts to what is already said; hence it very often happens, that persons, in order to fill up the time or paper, add new words and expressions without adding new ideas: they string together synonymous terms and expressions, just as if they meant to repeat what they have learned in some dictionary. It is said that Daniel Webster resolved —"Never to use a word that does not add some new idea, or modify some idea already expressed." Those words may in general be omitted, which are readily inferred, by the hearer or

reader, from the words that are given; and those thoughts may be left unexpressed, which are readily inferred from the thoughts that are expressed. The chief faults to be guarded against in seeking for brevity of expression, are *obscurity* and *deficiency;* which frequently arise from the use of very general and comprehensive terms, and from the omission of words. The allowable or elegant omission of words is termed *ellipsis.* Dialogue, and discourse uttered under the influence of great excitement, are most frequently elliptical.

Coleridge, to give his notion of a perfect style, once said that he had lately read, of Southey's prose, several pages so well written that nothing in them presented itself to his mind except the author's meaning,—that no word, no mode of expression, and no jar in the train of thought, diverted or drew his attention. A perfect style, then, is so transparent a medium for the thought as to become itself invisible,—a train of words presenting the meaning so well and impressively that it passes by itself unobserved. It has been truly said, "Nature's chief masterpiece is writing, well." A person's skill in style depends chiefly on his knowledge judgment, and taste, and his practice in composition. His discourse should be, throughout, one entire, consistent, congruous, and perfect picture of all that is pertinent to the subject, his aim, and the reader's capacity; presenting neither too much nor too little. Nothing important should be left out, and nothing useless should be allowed to come in. In short, the piece should be such that no word, phrase, clause, sentence, or paragraph, can be omitted, inserted, transposed, or changed, without injuring the excellence of the whole. The natural order of things should be observed, or such an order as will make the greatest impression. If thoughtful of what we are saying, we would hardly say, "He dressed and washed himself;" "He tumbled, head over heels, into the river;" "He will kill, steal, cheat, and lie, for gold." Things that have no connection, should not be jumbled together; as, "I am well, and hope you have got my last letter." We should not be so flighty as to say something on one topic, then pass to another topic, then come again to the first topic; nor should we, in a subsequent part of the discourse, tell, as if we had not told, what we have already told; nor make any statement inconsistent with some other statement at some distance before it.

The transition from one topic to another should be natural and easy. Not so many different subjects should be introduced into one sentence as will make it confused. The most important parts should be placed where they will make the strongest impression. Modifying parts should be so placed or distributed as to encumber the discourse as little as possible, and to show clearly and readily what they are intended to modify. The longer and more important parts of a sentence should generally follow the shorter and

less important parts. To conclude a sentence with an insignificant word or phrase, is always inelegant.

When a serial structure has been adopted, it is generally disagreeable to discontinue or to change it, before the entire enumeration is made. Parts contrasted or emphatically distinguished, should generally be expressed with fulness. "It is not by indolence, but by diligence, that you will succeed. "Spring borrowed a new charm from its undulating grounds, *its* luxuriant woodlands, *its* sportive streams, *its* vocal birds, and *its* blushing flowers." Parts connected by correlative words, and parts implying contrast or comparison, must generally be expressed as nearly alike as possible. Observe the elegance of arrangement and expression in the following sentence: "Homer hurries us with a commanding impetuosity; Virgil leads us with an attractive majesty: Homer scatters with a generous profusion; Virgil bestows with a careful magnificence."—*Pope.*

Short sentences and long ones should be properly intermixed. Many short sentences, in succession, are apt to have a disagreeable hitching or jerking effect; and long-winded sentences also displease, by becoming tiresome or tedious. Most of the best modern writers rather prefer short sentences and simple structure, to long and complicated sentences. Long and involved sentences should generally be avoided, by expressing the same meaning in two or more shorter sentences. A long parenthesis within a sentence is generally better expressed by taking it out, and putting it after or before the other part, as a distinct sentence. It is sometimes better to recast a disagreeable sentence altogether; or to dismiss it, and to express the meaning in some other way. Mr. *Bancroft* says, in his History, "Private interest, directed to the culture of a valuable staple, was more productive than the patronage of England; and tobacco enriched Virginia." Here the tobacco clause is hitched on very abruptly and awkwardly; just as if the author did not know what to do with it. Perhaps *Macaulay* would have said: "Private interest, directed to the culture of a valuable staple, was more productive than the patronage of England. The Virginians turned their attention to tobacco; and tobacco enriched them."

In selecting words, or modes of expression, the question is not whether they are perfectly adapted to express the meaning, but whether they are the best the language affords for the meaning; if they are, then they are proper. The preference should, in general, be given to those words and expressions which are most popular, or understood by the greatest number of people; and whose fundamental meaning, when they are analyzed, or traced to their etymology, accords best with the sense in which we mean to use them.

Our little words of one or two syllables, and our pithy idioms, are generally the best. A great master of language says: "Sax-

on words cannot be used too frequently. They abridge and condense, and smack of life and experience, and form the nerve and sinew of the best writings of the day; while the Latin is the fat. The Saxon puts small and convenient handles to things, handles that are easy to grasp; while your ponderous Johnsonian phraseology extends and exaggerates, and never peels the chaff from the wheat." Dr. Johnson said, "The Rehearsal has not life enough to keep it sweet;" but as if immediately recollecting himself, he added, "It possesses not sufficient vitality to preserve it from putrefaction." He defines *net-work* so that no lady can fail to have a clearer idea of it than she ever had before: "Any thing reticulated or decussated, with interstices at equal distances between the intersections."

We should never use foreign words, expressions or idioms, when we have native ones that will express the meaning as well. Such a use of language is nonsensical, affected, and pedantic. "Is Lizzie on the carpet *adhuc?* Are things still in *statu quo?* I shall put out in a few days, and go *quo animus fert;*—you know where."—*From a Letter.* "Très humble serviteur. Et comment sa porte, Mademoiselle? Why you look divinely. But, mon enfant, they have dressed you out most diabolically. Why, what a coiffure must you have! and, oh mon Dieu! a total absence of rouge. But perhaps you are out."—*Foote: Englishman returned from Paris.*

The following paragraph is composed in the French idiom: I no sooner found myself here than I visited my new apartments, which are composed of five pieces; the small room, which gives upon the garden, is practised through the great one, and there is no other issue. As I was exceeded with fatigue, I no sooner made my toilette than I let myself fall upon a bed of repose, where sleep came to surprise me,"

It is not always easy to determine what is genuine English idiom. Our language, being formed from several others, *has idioms from them all.* To what extent foreign idioms may be allowed in our poetry, it is not easy to determine. I incline to think, that in the whole of our poetry—English, Welsh, Scotch, Irish, and American—may be found all the naturally intelligible idioms from all the foreign languages that our writers ever studied.

It is possible to make discourse out of words merely; that is, without having vivid ideas of things themselves. Words are often strung together grammatically, and with just enough sense or propriety to avoid absurdity. Such emptiness of expression may be termed *nonsense.* It comes from dull minds, or from indolent or vacant states of the mind. Thus it happened that a certain Spanish poet could not tell what his own sonnet meant, and thus have been produced hundreds of unmeaning paragraphs in our literature. Hence we can not be too careful, or use too great efforts, in getting at clear and distinct ideas. Indeed, *vivid statuesque* ideas are the

greatest charm, or that which, above all things else, enchains the hearer or reader. *Truth—truth* worth learning and remembering, is the first quality; and the next is *beauty*.

A common species of nonsense and pedantry is the grandiloquent use of learned language, when the speaker or writer has nothing to say, or does not himself comprehend, or only in a shadowy way, what he pretends to explain or prove to others.

Ex.—"The thinkable, even when compelled by analysis to make the nearest approach that is possible to a negation of intelligibility, thus implies phenomena objectified by thought, and conceived to exist in space and time." ("If thou hast any tidings," says Falstaff to Pistol, "prithee, deliver them like a man of this world.")

Language of this kind is mostly found in spiritual or transcendental writers and speakers; especially divines and metaphysicians. In fact, we are all liable to use language thus, whenever we attempt to draw forth into light what is beyond the reach of the limited faculties of the soul.

Another species of pedantry or affectation is the excessive or needless use of technical language. "Lay in your oars, my lads; step the short mast—close-reef the storm-lug, and beach the galley under canvas."—*From a Novel.* None but a seaman knows what is meant here. Most people are too indolent to search out the meanings of the words they do not understand, nor is it always convenient to do so. In writing a scientific treatise, or in addressing scientific persons, technical language may sometimes be necessary or most appropriate.

Another species of pedantry, or rather, of affectation, is the ridiculous aping, in fine or pompous language, of those people who are deemed worthy of imitation.

Ex.—"Administer your proposition; you will have my concurrence, sir, in any thing that does not derogate from the regulations of conduct; for it would be most preposterous in one of my character to deviate from the strictest attention. Nor would there, Sir Gregory, did circumstances concur as you insinuate, be so absolute a certitude, that I, who have rejected so many matches, should instantly succumb. And had not Penelope Trifle framed irrefragable resolutions, she need not so long have retained her family name."—*Foote, ridiculing an old prude.*

Much akin to the foregoing fault is *silliness*, which should also be carefully avoided.

A popular book on physic, thus describes the process of eating:—

"Prehension, or the taking of food into the mouth, is performed mainly by the hand, assisted by the lips and cheeks, as well as the anterior teeth and the tongue. The contact of the solid food with

the interior of the mouth, excites the act of mastication, performed by alternating contractions of the muscles which pull the lower jaw upward, downward, backward, forward and laterally, by acting on the bone in which they are implanted."

To defer the main subject in order to define the meaning of words, borders frequently upon silliness; and so does most of the unbecomingly florid or figurative language. These two faults may be termed the *sophomoric style*, as being naturally and generally found in the half-green and half-ripe age of college sophomores. Similar to silliness of expression is another fault, which I have often noticed, and which sometimes affects whole communities as well as individuals. It is the hackneyed use of some particular word, phrase, or sentence.

Some people are always *guessing;* some, *reckoning;* some, *calculating;* and some, *'sposing:* some find every thing *sweet;* some, *first-rate;* some, *mighty good;* some, *mighty bad;* and others have all things always in the superlative degree; some always respond with a "*That's so,*" "*Did you ever!*" "*Yes!*" "*Well, to be sure!*" or "*That's a fact.*" Certain politicians are never known to make a speech without having "*our great and glorious Union*" in it. Some speeches are flooded with "*my fellow-citizens.*" With some, whatever pleases, is "*nice;*" or "*fine,*" or "*first-rate.*" Poets often exhibit this fault in their use of rhymes. In fact, the fault seems to be a natural infirmity of the human mind, whenever it becomes morbid or indolent, or when it comes to a stand in the growth of its knowledge. We are often annoyed by remembered scraps buzzing in the head like gadflies, especially if they find there something of a Pegasus.

Low, vulgar, or provincial expressions should be avoided. Such are,—"*To get into a scrape,*" "*To play the 'possum,*" "*To acknowledge the corn,*" "*To cut shines,*" "*To bark up the wrong tree,*" "*To get the hang o',*" "*To have a fair shake at,*" "*To curry favour,*" and many others, which we decline to quote for fear the learner should catch them. Some of these low yet current expressions are so well founded and so energetic that they should rather be regarded as gold in bullion, that has not yet received the stamp.

A departure from grammatical accuracy, or from elegance, is sometimes allowed, in order to represent more faithfully the language or character of another. "*Child.* Once, when I sat upon her lap, I felt a beating at her side; and she told me 'twas her heart that beat, and bade me feel for mine, and they both beat alike, only mine beat *the quickest.* And I feel my heart beating yet—but hers I cannot feel!" Had the author here said "*more quickly,*" he would have shown at once, not the pathetic prattle of the child over its dead mother, but his own counterfeiting, and thus spoiled the dramatic effect. Hence, too, Cowper makes Mrs. Gilpin say: "So you must ride on horseback after *we.*" To this head may also be referred the imitations of *brogues* and *dialects.*

All uncouth, harsh, antiquated, obsolete, unauthorized, or new-fangled terms, should generally be avoided, unless they are meant to be imitative, or are peculiarly appropriate and expressive.

Ignorant people often pervert words, or confound words that resemble in sound, or imagine that words belong to the language that are not in it, or not authorized; as, *critter* for *creature; disgracious* for *ungracious; prehaps* for *perhaps; contagious* for *contiguous.* "He was much *effected* by the operation." "They got a *habus corpus.* A certain man "meant to run a *revenus* up to his house, build a *pizarro* in front, a *portorico* behind, a *conservatory* on top, and treat his friends in the most *hospital* manner."

The same word or the same mode of expression should not be so often used as to indicate poverty of language; nor in so many different senses as to render the meaning doubtful, or disappoint disagreeably the expectation of the reader.

When there are several synonymous words or expressions, great care should be taken to select the most appropriate one. "An *idle* boy is unwilling to be employed;" say rather, "A *lazy* boy, &c. *Idle* means *not doing*, or *not effecting much; lazy* means *unwilling to do.* "The proud pile is of great magnitude, and *soars* grandly up with its numerous towers and splendid terraces."—*Travels in Europe.* I believe *soars* is applied only to what leaves its support; therefore it cannot be applied to an edifice: say, "*rises.*" If our language had no word nearer to the meaning than *soars*, then *soars* would be proper. In order to discriminate words, it may be useful to the student to keep in mind the three following observations:—

1. Learn the principles of language, or of synonymy, and endeavour to apply them judiciously. For example: Some words are more comprehensive or less specific than others. Every *river* is a stream, but not every *stream* is a river. Some words are active, and others are passive. *Force* affects, *strenyth* sustains; fickle men *waver*, prices *fluctuate; reasonable* men exercise reason, *rational* men have reason. Some words are positive, and others are negative. A *fault* is something positively bad; a *defect* is a mere want of something needed. Some words differ in degree; as, *damp, moist, wet; delicacy, dainty.* Some words relate more directly to nature; others, to art. *Gentleness* may be the gift of nature, but *tameness* is the result of art. Some words are rather spiritual or heavenly; others, worldly or material: *soul, mind; spirit, vigor; delightful, delicious.* Some words rather have reference to something inward; and others, to something outward; as, *dignity, decorum.* Some words are the names of things themselves; others are but the names of the signs of things; as, *idea, word.*

2. Consider what distinctions the differences in things require;

look through your knowledge, look into the world around you—into other men's knowlege and practice, and into the relations of things, and discriminate accordingly. For example: *Genius* is rather inward, creative, and angelic; *talent*, outward, practical, and worldly. *Genius* disdains and defies imitation; *talent* is often the result of imitation in respect to every thing that may contribute to the desired excellence. *Genius* has quick and strong sympathies, and is sometimes given to revery and vision; *talent* is cool and wise, seldom loosing sight of "common sense." *Genius* is born for a particular pursuit, in which it surpasses; *talent* is versatile, and may make a respectable figure at almost any thing. To *genius* are due about all the achievements that distinguish enlightened from savage life; *talent* has merely preserved, polished, employed, and enjoyed the productions of *genius*, but created nothing. Men of *talent* are but time-servers: they usually carry on the world, and get the best of it while they are in it; but their glory generally ends at the grave. Men of *genius* sometimes starve for want of bread; though they are generally appreciated and honored by posterity.

Discriminate words as you find them used in sentences written by good authors. If I say, "When the disciples saw the Saviour arisen on the morning of the resurrection, they *gazed* upon him with astonishment and rapture;" "I have often seen impudent fellows station themselves at the doors of churches, and *stare* at the women;" you can easily see the difference between *gaze* and *stare*.

Every word has a peculiar set of associations belonging to it; and in the proper discrimination of words with reference to their secondary ideas, lie chiefly the precision and elegance of language.

We should rather choose the words and expressions already in common use, and employ them in their ordinary signification, than coin new words or expressions, or use old ones in a peculiar sense; for, if we were at liberty in these respects, soon every man's writings would need a glossary. Ex.—"We may recognize this construction by the name of the accusative and infinitive contracted objective accessory."—*Mulligan.*

Another fault is *ambiguity*, which arises chiefly from the several different meanings which some words have, from the position of words, and from the omission of words. "He is *mad*." "The governor had several *fast* friends in the Territory."—*Burnet's Northwest Territory.* What sort of friends does he mean? "*firm* friends," I suppose. "*The rising tomb a lofty column bore.*' Which bore the other? "While the sun was gently sinking below the horizon in the west, with much beauty, the bright moon rose serenely above it in the east."

Rhymes, poetical words, and poetic structure, should be avoided in prose:—

Ex.—"He pulled out his *purse* to reim*burse* the unfortunate man." "The *morn* was cloudy and dark*some*, but the *eve* was serenely beautiful."

The gallant warrior starts from soft repose, from golden visions and voluptuous ease; where, in the dulcet piping time of peace, he sought sweet solace after all his toils. No more in beauty's siren lap reclined, he weaves fair garlands for his lady's brows; no more entwines with flowers his shining sword, nor through the livelong lazy summer's day chants forth his love-sick soul in madrigals. To manhood roused, he spurns the amorous flute; doffs from his brawny back the robes of peace, and clothes his pampered limbs in panoply of steel. O'er his dark brow where late the myrtle waved, where wanton roses breathed enervate love, he rears the beaming casque and nodding plume; grasps the bright shield and shakes the ponderous lance; or mounts, with eager pride, his fiery steed, and burns for deeds of glorious chivalry."—*Irving: Knickerbocker.* Possibly the foregoing was meant in ridicule of the turgid or bombastic style. The golden-mouthed author, however, not unfrequently transgresses, by passing into poetic grounds.

A person's style, according as it is influenced by taste and imagination, may be *dry, plain, neat, elegant, florid,* or *turgid.* The most common faulty style is that which may be described as being stiff, cramped, labored, heavy, and tiresome; its opposite is the easy, flowing, graceful, sprightly, and interesting style. One of the greatest beauties of style, one too little regarded, is symplicity or naturalness; that easy, unaffected, earnest, and highly impressive language which indicates a total ignorance, or rather, innocence, of all the trickery of art. It seems to consist of the pure promptings of nature; though, in most instances, it is not so much a natural gift as it is *the perfection of art.*

24TH EXERCISE.

Supply appropriate words in the following elliptical passages.

About the middle of the eighteenth , when Englishmen abroad were, from their rareness, objects of greater than now, one, while the tour of Europe at Turin. out to see the , he happened to meet a of infantry from parade. As he at the passing troops, a young officer, evidently desirous to make a before the stranger, his footing in . one of the water-courses by the city is intersected, and in trying to himself, his hat. The populace laughed, and at the Englishman, expecting him to too. On the , he not only his composure, but promptly

to the spot where the had rolled, and it up, presented it with an of unaffected kindness to its confused . The received it with a of surprise and gratitude, and to rejoin his company. There was a of applause, and the passed on. Though the of a moment, it every heart: it was an of that genuine politeness which from kind and gentle feelings. On the being dismissed, the captain, who was a young of rank, the circumstance in terms to his colonel. The colonel immediately it to the general in ; and when the returned to his hotel, he an aid-de-camp waiting to his to dinner at headquarters. In the evening he was to court, at that the most brilliant in Europe, and was with particular . During his subsequent at , he was invited to the of all persons of ; and at his he received letters of to the different states of . Thus a private of moderate , by a act of , was enabled to through a foreign with more real distinction and advantage can be derived from the mere of birth and fortune.

25TH EXERCISE.

Supply appropriate words in the following elliptical passages :—

I. THE BLIND BEGGAR AND THE DOG.

When a poor old is obliged to by begging, he sometimes a dog to him about. He holds the by a string, and to its sense and fidelity for being in the path and not into deep or precipices, where his would be in danger. In the of Rome there once a blind who was by a dog. It was a dog of . sagacity, and very kind, and also just in all its with its master. The old man went twice a week certain streets, at particular houses, he expected to alms. The dog all the proper streets through his master was to be , and also door in those streets where it was that anything would be . While the old man was at the door, and asking for , the dog down to rest ; but as soon as the alms had been either given or , the animal , and to the next house where its master applied. When a halfpenny was from a window, the beggar, blind, could not for it; but the

dog never to search it out; he always up the coin in his , and it into the blind man's . Sometimes bread was thrown from , and it might be that the poor animal, being probaly ill at home, would be inclined to the morsel to himself. But hungry he might be, he never the least bit of food, it was given to by his . conduct in a human being, from the right motives, would be highly

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26TH EXERCISE.

KING JOHN OF FRANCE.

John, King of France, taken in by Edward the Black Prince, and to England. After there in captivity four , he was to return to his own , that he might to prevail upon his subjects to to a peace proposed by the of England. The of the English king, which, among other , stipulated for four millions of gold crowns as a for the French monarch, were not favourably in France, and peace was not into effect. When King John that his would not pay the money for his liberty, he did not, as would have done, to stay in France. He immediately to return to , and his person once more into the of King Edward. Some of his councillors him against this , but he was not by their councils. "If faith and loyality," said he, "were from the rest of the world, they ought still to enshrined in the of kings." He accordingly to England—became again a —and soon after in London.

27TH EXERCISE.

THE ARMADA.

The Armada from the Tagus, 20th May 1581, but on Cape Finisterre, was delayed by a , which much damage. The fleet had, , to put back to Corunna. Having been , it again set , and on the 19th July it was seen the English Channel in the of a crescent. The English admiral the great size of the enemy's , resolved to mainly upon the more manageable of his own smaller and more trim vessels, and to become the party, instead of merely on the defensive. The result his calculation; the English ships, to the rudder, took of every shift of the

wind, blew capriciously at the time, and six days' hard fighting, so the unwieldy Spanish , that it was with great they contrived to take . in the port of Calais (27th July). Meantime the Spanish army, under Parma, was to form a junction with the . It was necessary to this. On the night of the 29th, which tempestous, eight fire-ships by the English were coming down on the vessels at anchor in the of Calais. A seized the Spaniards, the were cut, and the put out to sea: when at sea a storm which them along the coast from Ostend to Calais. The vigilant English , meanwhile, them vigorously in every quarter, serious . Crippled and , the Spaniards now to return home with the remains of the Armada by the north of Scotland and Ireland, the English fleet still in their wake. The of Philip's attempt was the of thirty ships of war and 10,000 men. That was a day for Elizabeth on which she her victorious at Tilbury Fort. She welcomed her sailors and army, who the air with , while the of the hostile fleet was struggling back to , which of the ships ever reached.

ORNAMENTS OF STYLE.

Figures of Speech are uncommon *Forms* of Expression, serving either to *ornament the style*, or to *place the thought in a clearer light.*

They consist of two classes:—*Figures of Arrangement* and *Tropes* (Greek *trepo*, I turn.) But it is to the latter that the term *Figurative language* is generally applied.

Chief Figures of Arrangement.

1. Exclamation.
2. Interrogation.
3. Inversion.
4. Pleonasm.
5. Antithesis.
6. Climax.

Chief Tropes.

1. Simile.
2. Metaphor.
3. Allegory.
4. Personification.
5. Hyperbole.
6. Apostrophe.
7. Metonymy.
8. Synecdoche.
9. Irony.

FIGURES OF ARRANGEMENT.

1. *Exclamation* gives life to style by expressing a fact in the form of a *cry of wonder;* as, *How tall she has grown! What a dazzling light!*

2. *Interrogation* gives life and emphasis to style by expressing a fact or an opinion in the form of a *question;* as, *Can there be the least doubt of his guilt?*

3. *Inversion* places words in an unusual order for the sake of emphasis; as, *War at that time there was none.*

4. *Pleonasm* makes language emphatic by using words that are unnecessary to the simple meaning; as, *I saw him with these very eyes.*

5. *Antithesis* (Greek, *a placing against*) consists in bringing thoughts that are opposed into strong contrast; as, *A living death. Not that I loved Cæsar less, but that I loved Rome more.*

6. *Climax* (Greek, *a slant or ladder*) places words in such a manner as to express thoughts that rise, each above the last, in an ascending scale of force; as, *The cannibal savage—torturing—murdering—devouring—drinking the blood of his mangled victims.*

TROPES OR FIGURES OF THOUGHT.

1. *Simile* is the expression *in full* of a resemblance between two things; as, Then, *like a wild cat mad with wounds*, sprang right at Astur's face.

Note.—The simile is known by its sign, which is generally *like* or *as;* but the sign is sometimes involved in the meaning of another; as, Swift in his decay *resembled a giant tree withered in its topmost boughs.*

2. *Metaphor*—a bolder figure—expresses a resemblance, without using any sign of comparison; as, Palmerston was long *a pillar of the throne.*

3. *Allegory* is a metaphor expanded to considerable length. *The Pilgrim's Progress* is our finest allegory: the metaphor on which it is founded is—The life of a Christian is *a perilous journey.*

Note.—In the Allegory one half of the comparison is expressed; the original object of thought being implied.

4. *Personification* speaks of lifeless things as if they were persons. There are three degrees of the figure:—

1. Ascribing *qualities;* as, A *cruel* disease.
2. Ascribing *actions;* as, The sea *saw* it and *fled.*
3. Ascribing *speech* and *hearing;* as, *Ye crags and peaks!*

5. *Hyperbole* exaggerates for the sake of emphasis; as, Xerxes' army *drank the rivers*, as they marched through Greece. The waves struck *the dripping stars*.

6. *Apostrophe* addresses a person, absent or dead, as if present, as, *Departed spirits of the mighty dead!*

Note.—Personification in the third degree is a form of Apostrophe.

7. *Metonymy* exchanges one name for another, which expresses a kindred idea. It puts:—

1. The cause for the effect; as, The foaming *grape* of eastern France; I am reading *Shakspere*.
2. The effect for the cause; as, *Grey hairs* for *old age*.
3. The *sign* for the *thing signified;* as, The *Cross* will yet conquer the whole world—*i.e.*, the Gospel of Christ. He mustered more *bayonets* than *sabres*—*i.e.*, more infantry than cavalry.
4. The *container* for the *thing contained:* as, He drank the brimming *cup*. *Streets* and *squares* broke into weeping. The *House* sat for six hours.

8. *Synecdoche* expresses a whole by naming a part, or *vice versâ;* as, Ten *sail* of the line. All *Europe* watched his rise. Belgium's capital had gathered then her *beauty* and her *chivalry*.

9. *Irony* expresses a meaning more emphatically by using words denoting exactly its reverse; as, He is a *perfect Solomon* (meaning he is very foolish.) All this resulted from the *tender care and fostering protection* of the Government (to express evils produced by misrule.)

DISTINCTION OF FIGURES.

28TH EXERCISE.

FIGURES OF ARRANGEMENT.

Write from the following paragraph the two examples of Interrogation; the two of Exclamation; of Hyperbaton or Transposition; of Pleonasm; of Antithesis; and the example of Climax.

Blessed are the meek, for they shall inherit the earth. The prodigal robs his heir; the miser robs himself. Who shall separate us from the love of God? It is highly criminal to bind a Roman citizen; to scourge him is enormous guilt; to kill him is almost parricide; but by what name shall I designate the crucifying of him? Then shook the hills, with thunder riven. Shall a man be more pure than his Maker? He heareth it with his ears, and understandeth it with his heart. How majestic are the starry

heavens! The wise man considers what he wants; and the fool what he abounds in. I saw it with these eyes. O the depth of the riches both of the wisdom and knowledge of God!

29TH EXERCISE.

FIGURES OF THOUGHT OR TROPES.

Write from the following paragraph the two examples of Simile; the two of Metaphor; of Allegory; of Metonomy; of Synecdoche; of Hyperbole; of Personification; of Apostrophe; of Irony.

The sword has laid waste many a fertile tract of country. Moist, bright, and green, the landscape laughs around. Love swells like the Solway, but ebbs like its tide. Saul hath slain his thousands, and David his ten thousands. I am the true vine. Thou art sounding on, thou mighty sea, for ever and the same! Mine eyes run down rivers of water. Thou that destroyest the temple, and buildest it up in three days, save thyself. The groves poured forth their music. O Jonathan! thou wast slain in thine high places! No useless coffin enclosed his breast. The mountains and the hills shall break forth before you into singing, and all the trees of the field shall clap their hands. The clouds were tinged with gold. The cotton manufacture employs a great number of hands. The righteous shall flourish as the palm tree. No doubt but ye are the people, and wisdom shall die with you. And now also the axe is laid unto the root of the trees: therefore every tree which bringeth not forth good fruit is hewn down and cast into the fire.

30TH EXERCISE.

FIGURES OF ARRANGEMENT.

Write from Scripture three examples of Interrogation; three of Exclamation; of Transposition; of Pleonasm; of Antithesis; of Climax.

31ST EXERCISE.

FIGURES OF THOUGHT OR TROPES.

Write from Scripture, or select from any source three examples of Simile; three of Metaphor; of Allegory; of Metonomy; of Synecdoche; of Hyperbole; of Personification; of Apostrophe; of Irony.

MISCELLANEOUS EXERCISES ON FIGURES.

32ND EXERCISE.

Write a figurative expression for each of the following words.

EXAMPLE: Youth—the morning of life.

Sun.	Thunder.	Sea.	Sleep.
Moon.	Lightning.	Night.	Death.
Stars.	Clouds.	Sky.	Grave.

33RD EXERCISE.

Write sentences with a metaphorical application of each of the following words.

EXAMPLE.

PATH—The paths of glory lead but to the grave.

Fruit.	Dark.	Climb.	Quickness.
Pain.	Deep.	Build.	Sweetness.
Pillar.	Strong.	Burn.	Coolness.

34TH EXERCISE.

1. Write the first twelve Similes in the first book of Milton.

2. Write the first twelve examples of Personification in Thomson's Season of Summer.

35TH EXERCISE.

Distinguish the Figures in any passages of Poetry that may be selected, thus:

EXAMPLE.

Sun of the sleepless! melancholy star!
Whose tearful beam shines tremulously far;
That show'st the darkness thou canst not dispel;
How like thou art to joy remembered well!
So memory gleams, the light of other days,
That shines, but warms not with its powerless rays:
A night beam Sorrow watches to behold,
Distinct, but distant; clear, but oh! how cold!

FIGURES.

The first four lines—apostrophe. "Sun"—metaphor. "Melancholy star"—personification. "Tearful beam"—personification. "How like thou art to joy remembered well!"—simile.

"So memory gleams, the light of other days, that shines, but warms not with its powerless rays"—comparison. "Gleams"—metaphor. "The light of other days"—metaphor. "Shines"—metaphor. "Shines, but warms not"—antithesis. "Rays"—metaphor. "Night beam"—metaphor. "Sorrow"—personification. "Distinct, but distant; clear, but oh! how cold!"—antithesis.

36TH EXERCISE.

Convert the following figurative expressions into plain language:

Example—He bore away the palm.
Changed—He obtained the prize.

How beautiful is night! The clouds of adversity soon pass away. Who is like unto thee, O God, in Heaven above, or in the earth beneath? He was one of the brightest luminaries of the age. Vain is the tree of knowledge without fruit. The waves rose to Heaven. She shed a flood of tears. The Emperor Caligula assumed the purple on the death of Tiberius. Have you read Pope? Nature in spring is covered with a robe of light green. Night spreads her sable mantle over the earth. The vessel ploughs the deep. Alfred was a shining light in the midst of darkness. The Cross will at last triumph over the Crescent.

37TH EXERCISE.

SIMPLE NARRATIVE.

Write a short account of the following objects, describing their construction, materials, form, and use.

A Scythe.	A Cart.	A Carriage.	A Railroad.
A Plough.	A Penknife.	A Balloon.	A Watch.

Write a short account of the following operations.

Sowing.	Hay-making.	Brewing.	Book-binding.
Ploughing.	Thrashing.	Baking.	Engraving.

Write a short account of the process of making the following substances.

Butter.	Soap.	Ink.	Earthenware.
Cheese.	Glass.	Gas.	Glue.

38TH EXERCISE.

PARAPHRASE OF POETICAL PASSAGES INTO PROSE NARRATIVE.

Paraphrase selected poetical passages into prose narrative.

ON ILLUSTRATIONS.

39TH EXERCISE.

EMBLEMS.

Write a short illustration of the following emblems:

Winter—Old age.	Flower—Man.
River—Human life.	Light—Knowledge.
Sleep—Death.	Evening—Autumn.

40TH EXERCISE.

Write a short illustration of the following Scripture emblems:

1. The Righteous shall flourish as the Palm Tree. 2. The Harvest is the End of the World. 3. The Kingdom of Heaven is like unto a grain of Mustard Seed. 4. I (Christ) am the light of the World. 5. Ye (Christians) are the Salt of the Earth. 6. Wicked men are like the troubled Sea.

41ST EXERCISE.

Write a short illustration of the following proverbs:

1. Better late than never. 2. Look before you leap. 3. A friend in need is a friend indeed. 4. A rolling stone gathers no moss. 5. Many a slip between the cup and the lip. 6. Empty vessels make the most noise. 7. No rose without a thorn. 8. Strike while the iron is hot. 9. Prevention is better than cure. 10. A small spark makes a great fire. 11. Where there is a will there is a way. 12. The burnt child dreads the fire.

42ND EXERCISE.

Write a short illustration of the following precepts:

1. Let not the sun go down upon your wrath. 1. Honor yourself, and you will be honored. 3. Do as you would be done by. 4. Avoid extremes. 5. Deliberate slowly, execute promptly. 6. Never put off till to-morrow what can be done to-day. 7. Be just before you are generous.

43RD EXERCISE.

Write a short illustration of the analogies between the following subjects:

1. A Plant and an Animal. 2. A Bird and a Fish. 3. A seed and an Egg. 4. A Bee-hive and a Social Community.

44TH EXERCISE.

Write a short illustration of the distinctions between the following subjects:

1. Reason and Instinct. 2. A Plant and an animal. 3. Courage and Rashness. 4. Pride and Vanity. 5. Selfishness and Self-love.

45TH EXERCISE.

Write a short illustration of the contrast between the following subjects:

1. Peace and War. 2. Civilization and Barbarism. 3. Industry and Idleness. 4. Selfishness and Benevolence. 5. Knowledge and Ignorance.

DESCRIPTIVE EXERCISES.

46TH EXERCISE.

Write a short description of the following scenes:

1. The Offering of Isaac. 2. Nature in Autumn. 3. Passage of the Red Sea. 4. A Moonlight Scene. 5. The Destruction of the First Born of Egypt. 6. A Canadian winter.

47TH EXERCISE.

Write a short outline or description of the subject of each of the following poems:

1. Pope's "Temple of Fame." 2. Goldsmith's "Deserted Village." 3. Scott's "Lady of the Lake." Shakespeare" play of the "Tempest." 5. Milton's "Comus." 6. Thomson's "Autumn."

EPISTOLARY EXERCISES.

48TH EXERCISE.

Write the following letters:

1. Write to a friend at a distance. 2. To a friend who is going abroad. 3. Write to a friend, giving an account of a summer excursion. 4. Write to a business house, with a view of opening a correspondence. 5. The reply to the last. 6. A letter containing an order for goods. 7. Announcing that certain goods ordered have been shipped. 8. Reply to the last. 9. From a tradesman to another, for money. 10. Application to a merchant, soliciting

a situation as clerk. 11. A letter of introduction. 12. A letter of congratulation.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES.

49TH EXERCISE.

Write a short account of the lives of the following eminent characters.

1. John Milton. 2. Martin Luther. 3. Christopher Columbus. 4. Sir Isaac Newton. 5. John Howard. 6. Oliver Goldsmith. 7. Benjamin Franklin. 8. Queen Elizabeth. 9. Lord Palmerston. 10. Richard Cobden. 11. Prince Albert.

HISTORICAL SKETCHES.

50TH EXERCISE.

Write a short account of the following subjects connected with English history:

1. The Wars of the Roses. 2. The Norman Conquest. 3. The Spanish Armada. 4. Civil Wars in the reign of Charles I.

51ST EXERCISE.

Write a short account of the following subjects, connected with Roman and Grecian history:

1. Hannibal's Campaign in Italy. 2. The Jugurthine War. 3. The Reign of Augustus Cæsar. 4. Battle of Marathon. 5. Leonidas at the Pass of Thermopylæ. 6. The Thirty Tyrants. 7. Retreat of the Ten Thousand.

IMAGINATIVE EXERCISES.

52ND EXERCISE.

Write an imaginary speech for each of the following occasions:

1. Pupils on Parting with a Teacher. 2. A Graduate on leaving College. 3. Harold at the Battle of Hastings. 4. Bruce at Bannockburn. 5. To a Missionary on his Departure to labor among the Heathen. 6. To Students on the Value of Time.

SUBJECTS FOR REASONING.

53RD EXERCISE.

Write a short statement of the arguments in support of the following conclusions, &c.:

1. The Earth is round. 2. The Christian Sabbath a Divine Institution. 3. Our Duty and Interest are inseparable. 4. Falsehood and Deception incompatible with true greatness of character. 5. It is as much the Duty and Interest of every country to provide and endow Institutions for the superior Education of Girls, as for the superior Education of Boys. 6. The British Constitution secures to each individual under it, the greatest amount of liberty compatible with the rights and interests of the whole community.

THEMES.

A theme is an exercise in which the subject is treated according to a set of Heads methodically arranged. In this respect it differs from an essay, wherein the writer is at liberty to follow his own inclination as to the arrangement of his ideas.

Some systematic arrangement must be observed, but the nature of the Theme should determine what method in any particular case would be most suitable. The following methods are given as examples:

FIRST METHOD.

1. Definition. 2. Origin and Cause. 3. Antiquity or Novelty. 4. Universality or Locality. 5. Effect. 6. Contrast. 7. Conclusion.

SECOND METHOD.

1. Introduction. 2. Definition. 3. Nature. 4. Operation and Effects. 5. Examples. 6. Application.

MISCELLANEOUS SUBJECTS FOR THEMES.

1. On Attention,
2. " Anger,
3. " Biography,
4. " Charity,
5. " Compassion,
6. " Conscience,
7. " Carelessness,
8. " Curiosity,
9. " Cheerfulness,
10. " Contentment,
11. " Diligence,
12. " Duplicity,
13. " Early Rising,
14. " Envy,
15. " Friendship,
16. " Fear,
17. " Forgiveness,
18. " Government,
19. " Greatness, true
20. " Genius,
21. " Habit,
22. Knowledge is power,
23. Progress of Error,
24. Progress of Truth,
25. Government of the Tongue,
26. " of the Temper,
27. " of the Affections,
28. Love of Country,
29. The Power of Association,
30. The Immortality of the Son,
31. The Uses of Knowledge,
32. Power of Conscience,
33. The Power of Habit,
34. Life is Short,
35. Miseries of Idleness,
36. Never too old to Learn.

LIST OF BOOKS TO BE CONSULTED BY STUDENTS.

For the guidance of those who wish to follow up the study of the English Language, the following list of Text Books is appended:

Latham's Hand Book of the English Language.
Fowler's English Grammar (Revised and Enlarged).
Trench's Study of Words.
Whateley's English Synonymes.
Alford's Queen's English.
Trench's English Past and Present.
Jamieson's Grammar of Rhetoric, &c.
Whateley's Rhetoric.
Craik's History of English Language and Literature.
Collier's English Literature.
Kame's Elements of Criticism.
Alison on Taste.
Whateley's Lessons in Reasoning.
Whateley's Logic.
Thomson's Outlines of the Laws of Thought.
Max Muller's Lectures on Science of Language.
Vandenhoff's Art of Elocution.

PROSODY.

Although prosody belongs rather to that higher department of the study of language which may be called *Criticism*, than to Pure Grammar, some account of the Laws and Nature of Verse is now given.

This branch of study is called *Prosody* (Greek *pros*, to, *ode*, a song,) and deals chiefly with *accent*, *metre*, and *versification*.

Verse differs from Prose chiefly—

1. In possessing *metre*.

2. In its *more elevated style*, which arises from .—(1.) the use of *less common words;* (2.) a *less usual order;* (3.) and the *abundance of Figures of Speech*.

METRE or MEASURE is the *regular succession of accented syllables*.

The metre of English Verse is therefore determined by the falling of the *Accent*.

Accent (Latin *ad*, to; *cano*, I sing,) means a certain force of the voice given to some syllables and not to others.

The regular falling of the Accent divides a line of Verse into certain portions called *feet*.

Note.—*Feet* are so called from the measured falling of the voice resembling the fall of the *feet* in marching.

The principal feet are:—

DISSYLLABIC.

1. Iambus, (Greek *iapto*, I attack; from its being used first in *satire*,) ⏑ – or s. l.; as, *repine*.

2. Trochee, (Greek *trecho*, I run; because trochaic metre suited *dancing*,) – ⏑ or l. s.; as, *bréaking*.

3. Spondee, (Greek *sponde*, a drink-offering; at which *solemn* melodies were sung,) – – or l. l.; as, *gréen léaves*.

TRISYLLABIC.

1. Anapaest, (Greek *ana*, back, and *paio*, I strike; being a dactyl *struck back*, or reversed,) ⏑ ⏑ – or s. s. l.; as, *on on trée*.

2. Dactyl, (Greek *dactulos*, a finger; one long joint, and two short,) – ⏑ ⏑ or l. s. s.; as, *beaú-ti-ful*.

3. Amphibrach, (Greek *amphi*, on both sides, *brachus*, short; a long syllable between two short ones,) ⏑ – ⏑ or s. l. s.; as, *do-més-tic*.

Note.—To these may be added the *Pyrrhic* ⏑ ⏑ and the *Tribrach* ⏑ ⏑ ⏑; but these may always be taken as forming parts of some of the six given above.

CHIEF KINDS OF METRE.

A row of feet is called a *Verse* or *Line*.

Note.—The word *verse* is otherwise, but less correctly, used to mean a certain arrangement of lines.

Two lines rhyming together make a *couplet*. *Three* lines rhyming together make a *triplet*. A *stanza* is a group of rhyming lines, generally ranging in number from four to nine.

Rhyme is the *agreement in sound* of accented syllables at the end, or sometimes in the middle, of poetic lines; thus,

Gloom rhymes with *bloom*.
Glory " " *story*.

Note.—The needful points in a perfect rhyme are:

1. That the vowel-sound be the same in both.
2. That the letters *after* the vowel be the same.
3. That the letters *before* the vowel be different.

Verse without Rhyme is called *Blank Verse*.

1. The principal English metre is *Iambic Pentameter; i.e.*, a line consisting of *five feet*, of the kind called *Iambus*.

⏑ – ⏑ – ⏑ – ⏑ – ⏑ –

Is thi's | the re' | gion, thi's | the so'il, | the cli'me ?

This metre, otherwise called our *Heroic Measure*, was first used in English verse by the Earl of Surrey, who was beheaded in 1547; and has been adopted by Shakspere, Milton, Cowper, Wordsworth, Tennyson—in fact, by nearly all our great poets. Dryden and Pope wrote the Heroic Measure chiefly in rhyming couplets.

2. The *Spenserian Stanza* consists of *eight* Iambic Pentameters, followed by an *Alexandrine*, or Iambic Hexameter; as,

A lovely ladie rode him faire beside,
Upon a lowly asse more white than snow;
Yet she much whiter; but the same did hide
Under a vele that wimpled was full low;
And over all a black stole she did throw;
As one that inly mourned, so was she sad,
And heavie sate upon her palfrey slow;
Seemed in heart some hidden care she had;
And by her in a line a milke-white lambe she lad.

SPENSER.

Thomson in the *Castle of Indolence*, and Byron in *Childe Harold's Pilgrimage* are chief among the more modern writers of he Spenserian stanza.

3. The *Iambic Tetrameter* (*four feet*,) in couplets was Scott's favourite metre:—

Woe wo'rth | the cha'se ! | woe wo'rth | the da'y !
That cost thy life, my gallant grey !—SCOTT.

This measure is often used in alternate rhymes:—

A moment, while the trumplets blow,
He sees his brood about thy knee;
The next, like fire, he meets the foe,
And strikes him dead for thine and thee.

TENNYSON.

Or thus (a couplet between two rhyming lines):—

I hold it true whate'er befal :
I feel it when I sorrow most.
'Tis better to have loved and lost,
Than never to have loved at all.

TENNYSON.

4. *Common Metre* consists of Iambic Tetrameters and Iambic Trimeters, arranged in alternate rhymes :—

Let o'ld | Timo' | theus yie'ld | the pri'ze, |
Or bo'th | divi'de | the cro'wn : |
He raised a mortal to the skies ;
She drew an angel down.—DRYDEN.

This metre, which is also called *Service Metre*, owing to its use in the English metrical version of the Psalms, is often written thus, in two long lines :—

Night sunk upon the dusky beach, and on the purple sea ;
Such night in England ne'er had been, nor ne'er again shall be.

MACAULAY.

5. The use of the *Anapaest*, instead of the *Iambus*, produces a beautiful undulating music, much used in Lyric poetry.

For the mo'on | never be'ams, | without brin'g | ing me dre'ams, |
Of the beau' | tiful An'n | abel Le'e : |
And the sta'rs | never ri'se, | but I fe'el | the bright ey'es, |
Of the beau | tiful Ann | abel Lee. | —POE.

6. The *Dactylic Hexameter*, the Heroic Measure of Greek and Latin, does not suit the genius of the English language. Longfellow's *Evangeline* affords perhaps the most favourable example of its use in English :—

This is the | forest prim | eval. The | murmuring | pines and the | hemlocks,
Bearded with | moss and with | garments | green, indis | -tinct in the | twilight,
Stand, like | Druids of | eld, with | voices | sad and pro | phetic.

THE STRUCTURE OF WORDS.

The following section on the structure of words is taken from Morell's Grammar.

1. ROOTS AND DERIVATIVES.

We propose under this heading to show the *sources* from which the words in the English language are derived, and to follow the *processes* by which they are formed.

1. A simple word of whose origin we can give no further account is termed *a root*. English roots consist of such words as *father*, *son*, *love*, *strong*, *come*, *go*, *tree*, and most other monosyllables which convey a simple notion or idea.

2. A simple word or root sometimes undergoes an alteration of form, either by changing the vowel sound, or by modifying the consonant. Thus, *strong* becomes *strength*; *shake* becomes *shock*; *glass* becomes *glaze*, &c. These we term *primary derivatives* or *stems*.

3. From the primary derivatives, or stems of the language, other words are formed by adding prefixes and affixes. Thus, *strength* becomes *strengthen*; *shock* becomes *shocking*; *glaze* becomes *glazier*. These we term *secondary derivatives*.

4. Two or more words are sometimes joined together to express one complete idea; as, *windmill*, *coppersmith*, *handicraftsman*, &c. These we term *compound words*.

2. SOURCE OF ENGLISH WORDS.

The principal basis of the English language is the Anglo-Saxon element. Of 38,000 words it is reckoned that about 28,000 spring from this source. Nearly all the simple roots and primary derivatives are of Saxon origin, and a large proportion of the secondary derivatives and compound words also.

As the Saxons combined more or less with the original Celtic population of this country, they naturally adopted a certain number of Celtic roots into their language. These roots have become, however, so assimilated to the Saxon form and pronunciation, that it is now difficult to recognise them as coming from a foreign source. In addition to the names of mountains, rivers, and localities, which are to a larger extent Celtic, we may adduce the following as instances of Celtic words which have been assimilated to the Anglo-Saxon dialect, and thus come down into the modern English :—

Bran.	Bump.	Smooth.
Brat.	Tarry.	Dun.
Bill.	Dainty.	Glen.
Cabin.	Darn.	Crag.
Cobble.	Pail.	Lad.
Quay.	Pitcher.	Lass.

2. The conquest of England by the Normans introduced the Norman-French into this country. As the Norman-French was one of the languages which had sprung out of the prevalence of the Latin idiom (Roman languages), its introduction prepared the way for grafting a large number of originally Latin words upon our primitive English stock. Many came indirectly through the French, and retain to this day the marks of the French origin; but as Latin was the learned language of Europe all through, and even beyond the Middle Ages, a still greater number of words were gradually introduced directly from the Latin by English writers who flourished from the revival of letters down to the time of Milton. From this time the language may be considered as having become virtually formed.

Latin *roots* have, in scarcely any instance, been brought over in their simple form into the English language, but only in the form of secondary derivatives. Thus we never say to *port*, or to *mit*; but we say *export*, *import*, *porter*, *deportment*; and *remit*, *omit*, *commit*, *commission*, &c.

3. As science and philosophy were first cultivated in Europe among the Greeks, and all other people have studied them more or less under Greek masters, the terms and phrases of the Greek language became naturally introduced into the scientific language of Europe. Hence most technical terms in mathematics, physics, medicine, botany, as well as art and philosophy, have been borrowed from *Greek* sources. These technical terms, with a few other words which have gradually come into more common use, form the present Greek element in the English language.

4. A few words in addition have found their way into our language from the Italian, the Spanish, and even the Hebrew and Arabic, but these have rarely succeeded in becoming thoroughly naturalized as a part of our modern English.

3. PREFIXES.

465. Most of the secondary derivatives in our language are formed by putting a syllable either before or after the root. A syllable put *before* the root is termed a prefix, a syllable put *after* the root is called an affix.

As the prefixes play a very important part in the structure of words, it will be useful here to give a list of them, classified according to the language from which they are derived.

SAXON PREFIXES.

A, signifying	in or *on*; as, abed, ashore.
Be, forming transitive verbs or adding intensity to	out of instransitive, as, bespeak, the meaning, besmear
For, signifying	the contrary; as, forbid, forbear.
Fore, ...	before; as, foretell, forebode.
Mid, ...	middle; as, midway, midshipman.
Mis, ...	failure; as, mishap, mistake.
N, ...	not; as, never, nor.
Over, ...	above; as, overlay, overdone.
Out, ...	excelling; as, outdo, outrun.
Un, ...	not; as undo, unskilled.
To, ...	this; as, to-day, to night.
With, ...	against *or* away; as, withstand, withhold.
Under, ...	beneath; as, underlay.
Up, ...	upwards; as, upheave, upstart.

LATIN PREFIXES.

A, ab, abs, signifying	from; as, avert, abstract.
Ad, (*or, of, ag, al, an, ap, ar, as, at*), ...	to; as, adhere, attract.
Ante, (*anti*) signifying	before; as, antedate, anticipate.
Bene, ...	well; as. benefit.
Bi, bis, ...	two, twice; as, biped.
Circum, ...	round; as, circumvent.
Co, con, com, col, ...	with; as, co-operate, connect.
Contra, ...	against; as, contradict.
De, ...	down; as, descend.
Dis, di, ...	apart; as dislodge, diverge.
E, ex, ef, ...	out; as, elect, export.
Equi, ...	equally; as, equidistant.
Extra, ...	beyond; as, extraordinary.
In, (with verb), ...	in *or* into; as, induct.
In, (do. adjective)	not; as, inelegant.

Inter,	.....	between ; as interlude.
Intro,	.....	within . as introduce.
Non,	.....	not; as, nondescript.
Ob, (*of, op, oc*),	.....	against, *or,* in the way of ; as, obstruct, oceur.
Per,	.....	through ; as, perspire.
Post,	.....	after ; as, postpone.
Præ, pre,	.....	before ; as, pre-ordain.
Præter,	.....	beside, past ; as, pretermit.
Pro,	.....	forth ; as, projeet.
Re,	.....	back ; as, remit.
Retro,	.....	backwards ; as, retrospection.
Se,	.....	apart ; as, separate.
Sub, (*suf, suc, sur*),	.....	under ; as, subject.
Subter,	.....	underneath ; as, subterfuge.
Super,	.....	over ; as, superfluous.
Trans,	.....	across ; as, transport.
Ultra,	.....	beyond ; as, ultramontane.

GREEK PREFIXES.

A or *an* (*α, αν*),	.....	not ; as, anarchy.
Amphi (*αμφι*),	.....	both ; as, amphibious.
Ana (*ανα*),	.....	up ; as, anatomy.
Anti (*αντι*),	.....	against ; as, antichristian.
Apo (*απο*),	.....	from ; as, apostle.
Arch (*αρχος*),	.....	first *or* chief ; as, archangel.
Auto (*αυτος*),	.....	self ; as, autocrat.
Cata (*κατα*),	.....	down ; as, catastrophe.
Dia (*δια*),	.....	through ; as, diameter.
En (*εν*),	.....	in ; as, enharmonic.
Epi (*επι*),	.....	upon ; as, epitaph.
Ex (*εξ*),	.....	out of ; as, exodus.
Eu (*ευ*),	.....	well ; as, euphony.
Hemi (*ήμι*),	.....	half ; as, hemisphere.
Hetero (*έτερος*),	.....	different ; as, heterogeneous.
Hyper (*ὑπερ*),	.....	over ; as, hypercritical.
Hypo (*ὑπο*),	.....	under ; as, hypothesis.
Meta (*μετα*),	.....	change ; as, metamorphose.
Para (*παρα*),	.....	beside ; as, paradox.
Peri (*περι*),	.....	around ; as, perimeter.
Syn, syl, sym (*συν*),	.....	with ; as, sympathy, syllogism.

The affixes will be explained in treating of the structure of each individual part of speech.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES ON THE STRUCTURE OF WORDS.

What words are termed roots? Give examples of roots. What words are termed primary derivatives? Give examples of pri-

mary derivatives. What words are termed *secondary derivatives?* Give examples of secondary derivatives. What words are called compound words? Give examples of compound words. What is the principal basis of the English language? Of the thirty-eight thousand words in common use in the English language, how many are derived from this source? What classes of words are principally of Saxon origin? Give examples. Give examples of words having Celtic roots assimilated to the Anglo-Saxon. From what other sources are the words derived? Explain the introduction of Norman-French words. Give examples of Norman-French words. Account for the presence of Latin words in the language. Give examples of words of Latin origin. In what form, generally, have Latin words been brought into the language? Give examples to illustrate this. How are the words introduced from the Greek generally employed? Give the reason for this. Give examples to illustrate it. From what other sources have a few words been introduced? How are the secondary derivatives generally formed? Give examples. How many Saxon prefixes are there? Repeat them. Give the signification of each of the Saxon prefixes, accompanied with an example to illustrate it. How many Latin prefixes are there? Repeat them. Give the signification of each of the Latin prefixes, accompanied with an example to illustrate it. How many Greek prefixes are there? Repeat them. Give the signification of each, accompanied with an example to illustrate it.

EXERCISE ON THE PREFIXES.

1. Point out the prefixes in the following words, and give their exact meaning; and state from what language they are derived.

Forewarn, incursion, paradox, oblation, reprove, extract, introduce, automaton, eclipse, disintegrate, illicit, misuse, abstract, accede, amphibious, withstand, circumlocution, episcopacy, retrieve, protrude, retrograde, epitaph, midway, election, oppose, anarchy, archetype, euphony, hemisphere, outdo, retain, supersede, subsequent, anabaptist, heterogeneous, biped, subterfuge, coincidence, ascend, insatiable.

4. STRUCTURE OF THE NOUN.

466. English nouns are either,—1. Original Roots; 2. Primary Derivatives or Stems; 3.. Secondary Derivatives or Branches; or, 4. Compound words.

1. The original *noun roots* of the English language consist of the names of all the common objects of nature and human life around us; such as, *Sun, moon, star, sea, stone, rock, hill, father, mother, sister, brother, hope, fear, love, shame, eye, ear, hand, arm, foot, lip, cow, sheep, dog, cat, &c.*

These words, and others of the same kind, have descended to us through our Saxon forefathers from a period lying beyond all reach of historical research, having undergone only partial changes in spelling and pronunciation, without at all losing their fundamental character.

2. English nouns which come under the title of *primary derivatives*, are also, with few exceptions, of Saxon origin. They are formed as follows:—

(1.) By modifying the vowel of the root; as, *Bless, bliss; feed, food; bind, bond; knit, knot, net; sit, seat; sing, song; strike, stroke*, &c.

(2.) By modifying the final consonant of the root, or adding another consonant; as, *Stick, stitch; dig, ditch; heal, health; drive, drift; smite, smith; believe, belief; prove, proof.*

(3.) By modifying both vowel and consonant; as, *live, life; lose, loss; choose, choice; weave, weft; thieve, theft*, &c.

3. English nouns which come under the title of *secondary derivatives*, are formed by a considerable variety of affixes.

A. Saxon derivatives are formed by the following affixes:—

(1.) *Signifying agent or doer.*

er,	as, sing, singer.	Derived from verbs.
ar,	as, lie, liar.	
ard or *art*,	as drink, drunkard; brag, braggart.	
ster,	as, pun, punster.	
ess (fem.)	as, seam, seamstress.	

(2.) *Forming Diminutives.*

ling,	as, dear, darling.	Derived from nouns.
kin,	as, lamb, lambkin.	
ock,	as, hill, hillock.	
let or *et*,	as, stream, streamlet; flower, floweret.	

(3.) *Denoting abstract ideas, such as State, Condition, Action, &c.*

ship,	as friend, friendship.	Derived from nouns.
hood or *head*,	as, man, manhood.	
dom,	as, king, kingdom.	
ery,	as, slave, slavery.	

age,	as, till, tillage.	Derived from verbs.
ter,	as, laugh, laughter.	
lock,	as wed, wedlock.	
ness,	as, white, whiteness.	Derived from adjectives.

(4.) *Denoting Instrument*

le,	as, gird, girdle.	Derived from verbs.
el,	as, shove, shovel.	
et,	as, hack, hatchet.	

B. Latin and French derivatives are formed by the following affixes :—

(1.) *Signifying an agent or a person generally.*

tor, sor,	as, auditor, sponsor.	From Latin nouns in *tor* and *sor.*
trix,	as, executrix.	From Latin nouns in *trix.*
eer,	as, auctioneer.	From French nouns ending in *aire,* and *ier, eur.*
ee,	as, legatee.	From French nouns ending in *é.*

(2.) *Forming Diminutives.*

aster,	as, poetaster.	From Italian nouns in *astro.*
cule, le,	as, animalcule.	From Latin nouns in *culus, -a -um ;* as, *animalculum, particula*
icle,	as, particle.	

(3.) *Signifying abstract ideas.*

ary,	as, commentary.	From Latin words in *arius ;* as, *commentarius.*
cy,	as, clemency.	From Latin words in *tia ;* as, *clementia.*
ence, ance,	as, penitence.	From Latin words in *antia ;* or *entia ;* as, *pœnitentia.*
ice,	as, justice.	From Latin words in *itia*; as, *justitia.*
ion, tion, sion	as, action, passion	From Latin words in *io ;* as, *octio.*
ment,	as, ornament.	From Latin words in *mentum ;* as, *ornamentum.*
our,	as, ardour.	From Latin words in *or,* through the French ; as, *ardor, ardeur.*
ty, ity,	as, dignity.	From Latin words in *tas* ; as *dignitas.*
tude,	as, multitude.	From Latin Words in *tudo* ; as, *multitudo.*
ture, sure,	as, tincture.	From Latin words in *ura ;* as, *tinctura.*

Many nouns of the above description are formed directly from

verbs, by simply changing the accent, *e. g.*, *To affix*, *an affix*; *To export*, *an export*, &c.

C. Greek derivatives are formed by the following affixes:—

(1.) *Signifying agent or person.*

an, a, musician.	From Greek words in κος (*kos*).	
ist, as, sophist.	.....	ιστης (*istès*).
ite, as, Israelite (patronymic).	.....	ιτης (*itès*).

(2.) *Forming Diminutives.*

isk,	as, asterisk.	From Greek αστερισκος.

(3.) SIGNIFYING ABSTRACT IDEAS.

e, *y*,	as, epitome, anarchy.	From Greek nouns in η (*ē.*)
ism, *sm*,	as, deism,	From Greek nouns in ισμος or ισμα (*ismos*, or *isma.*)
ic, *ics*,	as, arithmetic.	From Greek adjectives in ικος, α, -ον (*kos*, *-a*, *-on.*)
ma,	as, panorama.	From Greek nouns in μα (*ma.*)
sis,	as, hypothesis.	From Greek nouns in σις (*sis.*)

4. *Compound* nouns of Saxon origin exist largely in the present English language, and are not unfrequently coined as necessity requires; *e.g.*, *housemaid*, *railroad*, *helmsman*, *steamboat*, *cast-iron*, &c.

Compound words, derived from Latin and Greek, are borrowed in their compound form from those languages. New ones are coined only for scientific purposes.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS ON THE STRUCTURE OF THE NOUN.

Into what classes do you divide the words used as nouns, according to their structure? Of the names of what, do the original noun roots consist? Give examples. Of what origin are the nouns in the class of primary derivatives, and how are they formed? Give examples of words formed in each of the three ways. How are the nouns in the class of secondary derivatives formed? Give the affixes employed in forming Saxon derivatives that signify an agent or doer. Give an example to illustrate each. From what class of words are these derived?

Give those employed in forming diminutives. Illustrate each by an example. From what are these derived? Give the affixes employed in forming Saxon derivatives that denote abstract ideas, such as state, condition, action, &c. Illustrate the signification of each by an example. Which of those are applied to words derived from nouns? Which, to those derived from verbs? Which, to those derived from adjectives? Give affixes employed in forming Saxon derivatives denoting *Instrument*. Illustrate each

by an example. Give the affixes employed in forming Latin and French derivatives that signify an *agent* or person generally. Illustrate the signification of each by an example, stating whether it is derived from the Latin or French. Give the affixes employed in forming diminutives derived from the Latin or French, &c. Illustrate the signification of each by an example, stating from which it is derived. Give the affixes employed in forming Latin and French derivatives signifying *abstract ideas.* Illustrate the signification of each by an example, stating from which it is derived. Give examples of nouns of this kind formed directly from verbs by changing the accent. Give the affixes employed in forming Greek derivatives signifying an agent or person. Illustrate the signification of each by an example.. Give those forming diminutives. Illustrate the signification of each by an example. Give those forming abstract ideas. Illustrate the signification of each by an example. What is said of *compound* nouns of Saxon origin? Give examples. What is said of compound words derived from the Latin and Greek?

EXERCISE ON THE STRUCTURE OF THE NOUN.

1. Write out a list of ten noun *roots*, ten *primary* derivatives, ten *secondary* derivatives, and ten compound words.

2. Write primary derivatives from the following roots, and explain what change has taken place.—*Bless, bite, deal, sing, prove, breathe, love, choose, live, bathe, weave, strive, speak, use, &c.*

3. Point out the affixes in the following Saxon derivatives, and state the meaning of each.—*Liar, darling, hillock, kingdom, horsemanship, slavery, laughter, hatchet, shovel, girdle, &c.*

4. Point out the affixes in the following Latin and Greek derivatives, and state the meaning of each.—*Particle, animalcula, executrix, aversion, penitence, Jebusite, dignity, condiment, fissure, export, academician, royalist, globule, region, independence.*

5. State from what language the following affixes are derived, and what they each imply: -ard, -ess, -kin, -sor, -tor, -trix, -eer, -ist, -leng, -let, -lock, -tude, -ence, -ary, -sure, -el, -ness, -hood, &c.

6. Write out ten nouns signifying an agent: ten diminutives; ten denoting abstract ideas; ten signifying instrument; and state from what language each is derived.

7. Classify the following words according to their structure, and put each class in a separate list.—*End, stream, snuff, goodness, character, ideal, sun, strife, year, foremost, fear, child, proud, cloth, night, heaven, people, tyrant;*

5. STRUCTURE OF THE ADJECTIVE.

467. English Adjectives, like English

Nouns, are either,—1. Original Roots; 2 Primary Derivatives; 3. Secondary Derivatives; or 4, Compound Words.

1. Many Adjectives derived from the Saxon are *roots*, inasmuch as no simpler form of the word can now be assigned from which they have originally sprung: Such are, *good, bad, long, short, high, thin, thick, white, black, &c.*

2. English adjectives, which come under the title of *primary derivatives*, are also of Saxon origin.

They are formed like the noun-stems, from verbs and nouns, or other adjectives, in the following ways:—

(1.) By modifying the vowel; as, *fill, full; wring, wrong, pride, proud; string, strong.*

(2.) By modifying or adding a consonant; as, *loathe, loth; four, fourth.*

(3.) By modifying both vowel and consonant; as, *wit, wise; five, fifth.*

3. English adjectives which come under the title of *secondary derivatives*, are formed by a considerable variety of affixes:—

A. Saxon derivatives are formed by the following:—

ed,	as, left handed.	Participle form of adjective.
en,	as, wooden.	Meaning *material.*
ern,	as, southern.	... *direction* (used with the points of the compass.)
erly,	as, southerly.	
fold,	as, fourfold.	... *repetition.*
ful,	as, truthful.	... *full of.*
ish,	as, whitish, boyish.	... *rather* (diminutive) and sometimes *likeness.*
less,	as, houseless.	... *without.*
like,	as, lifelike.	... *resemblance* or *fitness.*
ly,	as, lovely.	
some,	as, winsome	... *possession of some quality*
ward,	as, windward.	... *direction to a place.*
y,	as, mighty.	The adjectival form of a noun.
un (prefix)	as, ungodly.	Meaning *not.*

B. Latin derivatives are formed by the following:—

al,	as, equal.	From Latin adjectives in *alis*; as, *equalis.*
an,	as, human.	From Latin adjectives in *anus*; as, *humanus.*
ant, ent.	as, elegant, eminent.	From Latin adjectives in *ans, ens*; as, *elegans.*

e, (preceded by a consonant),	as, marine.	From Latin adjectives in *nus* (preceded by a consonant); as, *marinus*.
fic,	as, horrific.	From Latin adjectives in *ficus*; as, *horrificus*.
ferous,	as, carboniferous.	From Latin adjectives in *fer* and *ferus*; as, *pestifer* or *pestiferus*.
ible, able,	as, visible.	From Latin adjectives in *bilis*; as, *visibilis*.
id,	as, timid.	From Latin adjectives in *idus*; as, *timidus*.
il, ile.	as, fertile.	From Latin adjectives in *ilis*; as, *fertilis*.
olent,	as, violent.	From Latin adjectives in *olens*; as, *violens*.
ose, ous.	as, verbose, copious.	From Latin adjectives in *osus*; as, *verbosus copiosus*.
ple, ble,	as, triple, double.	From Latin adjectives in *plex*; as, *triplex*.
tory, sory,	as, migratory.	From Latin adjectives in *torius, sorius*; as, *migratorius*.
tive	as, captive.	From Latin adjectives in *tivus*; as, *captivus*.
uous,	as, arduous.	From Latin adjectives in *uus*; as, *arduus*.
que (French)	as, oblique.	From Latin adjectives in *quus*; as, *obliquus*.

C. Greek derivatives are formed simply by—

ic,	as, hieroglyphic.	From Greek adjectives in ικος; as, αριθμητικος.
ical,	as, arithmetical.	

4. *Compound* adjectives exist to a large extent in the English language, particularly in the participial form; as, *left-handed, right-minded, blue-eyed*, &c.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS ON THE STRUCTURE OF THE ADJECTIVE.

Into how many classes are English adjectives divided according to their structure? Give examples of Saxon adjectives which are original roots. From what source do the adjectives that are primary derivatives come? From what are they formed? How are they formed? Give examples of adjectives formed in each way. How are adjectives of the class of secondary derivatives formed? Give the affixes employed in forming the Saxon secondary derivatives. Illustrate the signification of each by an example. Give the affixes employed in forming the Latin secondary derivatives.

Illustrate each by an example, stating from what Latin adjective it is derived. How are the Greek adjectives of the class of secondary derivatives formed? Illustrate each by an example. What is said of compound adjectives?

EXERCISE ON THE STRUCTURE OF THE ADJECTIVE.

1. Write or give a list of ten original roots.

2. Write primary derivatives from the following words:

String, die, heal, heat, trow, wring, pride, save.

Point out the affixes and give their meaning in the following secondary derivatives:—

Dusty, mountainous, verbose, fruitful, homeward, carboniferous, intelligent, imaginative, friendly, hopeless, handsome, witty, southern, sevenfold, edible, eatable, earthen, blackish, &c.

4. Write out a list of twenty Saxon derivatives, and twenty Latin derivatives, and state what the affix of each implies.

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6. STRUCTURE OF THE PRONOUN.

468. Pronouns are either.—1. Original Roots; 2. Derivatives; or, 3, Compound Words.

All of them are of Saxon origin, except "*one.*"

1. The pronouns which may be regarded as *original roots* in the English language, are, *I, me, we, us, thou, ye, you, he, she, it, they, who, self.*

OBSERVATION.—Of the above, *he, she, it,* and *they,* were not originally personal pronouns, but demonstrative adjectives (like the Latin *hic* and *ille*); but they are, nevertheless, original roots, which have *come to be used* pronominally.

2. The following pronominal forms are *derivatives*:—

Thee,	Objective form from *thou.*
Him,	Originally a dative from the masc. *he* and neut. *hit* of the Saxon *he, heo, hit,* (he, she, it); now an objective masc.
Her,	Originally a feminine dative and possessive form from the Saxon *heo.*
Them,	Originally a dative form from the Saxon *that.*
My,	Possessive form from *me.*
Thy,	.. .. *thou.*
Our,	.. .. *we.*
Your,	.. .. *you.*
Their,	.. .. *they.*
Mine,	.. .. *my.*

Thine,	Possessive form from *thy.*
Hers,	.. .. *her.*
His,	.. .. *his,*
Ours,	.. .. *our.*
Yours,	.. .. *your.*
Theirs,	.. .. *their.*
Its,	.. .. *it* (modern).
Whom,	Objective form from *who*; originally dative.
What,	Neuter form from *who.*
One,	Derived from the French *on,* which is an abbreviation of *homme.*
One's,	Possessive form of *one.*
Which,	A compound form originally from *who* and *like* (in the Scottish dialect *whilk*).

3. The *compound* pronouns are those formed by the union of the words *self* and *own,* with various of the personal and possessive pronouns; as, *myself, my own, themselves, one's-self,* &c.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS ON THE STRUCTURE OF THE PRONOUN.

Into how many classes are pronouns divided according to their derivation and structure? Of what origin are they? Which are the pronouns which belong to the class of original roots? Which of the pronominal forms are derivatives, and from what is each form derived? What is said of the compound pronouns?

7. STRUCTURE OF THE VERB.

469. English verbs are either,—1. Original Roots; 2 .Primary Derivatives; or, 3. Secondary Derivatives.

Compound Verbs can hardly be said to exist in the English language.

1. All the English verbs of the old form of conjugation are of Saxon origin, and all of them form *original roots* of the English language.

A considerable number of other verbs which are now conjugated accooding to the modern form, were once conjugated according to the ancient; as, *climb, laugh, quake* &c. These have also to be regarded as original roots of the language.

2. English verbs which come under the title of *primary derivatives,* are, with very few exceptions, from the original nouns and verbs in the following ways:—

(1.) By modifying the vowel; as, *lie, lay; sit, set; fly, flee; fall fell,* &c.

This class is *all* of Saxon origin.

(2.) By modifying the last consonant, either as to form or pronunciation; as, *advice, advise; bath, bathe; grease, grease; use, use.*

Observations.—(*a*) This class of verbs is formed from nouns, and they are, in some *few* cases, of Latin origin.

(*b*) The *e* at the end of *bathe, breathe,* &c., is added only to modify the sound of the preceding consonant.

(3) By modifying both vowel and consonant; as, *drink, drench; glass, glaze; hound, hunt; wring, wrench,* &c.

(4) By prefixing *s* or *t*; as, *dun, stun; melt, smelt; whirl, twirl;* &c.

3. English verbs which come under the title of *secondary derivatives*, are formed by a considerable variety of affixes.

A. Saxon derivatives are formed by the following:—

en,	as, heighten, weaken;	signifying to *make.*
er,	as, climb, clamber;	.... *frequentative force.*
ish,	as, burn, burnish;	.... (*various*).
le,	as, nip, nibble;	.... *frequentative force.*
y,	as, soil, sully;	.... to make.

Remark.—Many nouns and adjectives have been turned into verbs without any change whatever; as,

Dry,	To dry.
Cool,	To cool.
Rain,	To rain.
Salt,	To salt.

An increasing tendency (which ought to be resisted) to use the same word for different parts of speech, is perceptible in the present day. Many such verbs have now become accepted; as, *to crop* a farm; *to advocate* a cause; *to ship* goods, &c. But such licenses should be very sparingly admitted.

B. Latin derivatives are formed—

(1.) From the root of the verb; as,

Discern,	from	Discernere.
Concur,	"	Concurrere.
Condemn,	"	Condemnare.
Defend,	"	Defendere.
Inflect,	"	Inflectere.
&c.		&c.

The root is got by throwing off the terminations of the infinitive; *ā̆re, ēre, ĕre, īre.*

(2.) From the supine of the verb; as,

Act,	from	Actum.
Audit,	"	Auditum.
Accept,	"	Acceptum.
Credit,	"	Creditum.
Debit,	"	Debitum.
Affect,	"	Affectum
Investigate,	"	Investigatum.
Expedite,	"	Expeditum.
&c.		&c.

C. Greek derivatives are formed by the termination *ise* or *ize*; as, *baptize* (from βαπτίζω).

This termination, *ise* or *ize*, has been adopted to form many modern English verbs; as, to *Germanize*; *to Italicise*, &c.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS ON THE STRUCTURE OF THE VERB.

Into what classes are English verbs divided according to their origin and structure?—Which verbs are original roots?—What is their origin?—What is the origin of the primary derivatives?—How are they formed?—Give examples of primary derivatives formed in each way?—How are the secondary derivatives formed?—Give the affixes used in forming the Saxon secondary derivatives?—Illustrate the signification of each by an example?—Give examples of Saxon nouns and adjectives turned into verbs, without any change whatever?—How are the Latin secondary derivatives formed?—Give examples?—How are Greek derivatives formed?

EXERCISE ON THE STRUCTURE OF THE VERB.

1. Give a list of English root verbs and their principal parts.

2. Give primary derivatives from the following roots:—*Fall, rise, will, strew, hound, rush, fly, drop, draw, breathe, sit, lie, blood, melt, wash, shake, dry.*

3. Point out the affixes, if any, of the following words, and determine their meaning:—*Scatter, whiten, harden, imitate, clamber, prattle, exist, assist, linger, shuffle, bully, baptize, suspect, terminate, expedite, inhabit.*

4. Give a list of twenty Saxon, twenty Latin, and five Greek derivatives; explain the force of the affix in each, or show where an affix is wanting.

8. STRUCTURE OF THE ADVERB.

470. English Adverbs are either—1. Original Roots; 2. Primary Derivatives; 3. Secondary Derivatives; or, 4. Compound Words.

1. The *original* adverbs of the English language consist of a few monosyllables derived from the Saxon; such as, *now, then, there, here, oft, well, ill, not, so, thus.*

Obs.—*Then, there, thus,* and *here,* have now been traced pretty clearly to genitive, accusative, and dative forms of the Saxon demonstrative pronouns.

2. *Primary derivatives* are formed—

(1.) From numerals; as,

Once, twice, thrice; from *one, two, three.* These were originally the ordinary *genitive* forms of the numerals.

(2.) From nouns; as,

Needs,.....Genitive of *need.*
Whilom.....Dative of *while.*

So also we say—

Mornings,	for	Of a morning (Ger. *morgens.*)
Evenings,	"	Of an evening (Ger. *abends.*)
Mondays,	"	Of a Monday.

(3.) From other adverbs; as,

Thence, thither,	from	*There.*
Hence, hither,	"	*Here.*

Observations.—(*a*) a few cases also occur in which adverbs are formed out of adjectives and prepositions by adding the genitive termination *s*; as,

Unawares,	from	*Unaware.*
Besides,	"	*Beside.*

(*b*) A large number of the prepositions are joined to verbs, and used adverbially, without any change in their form. Thus, we say, To go *down, up, in, about, through, across,* &c.

(*c*) The participle form of the verb is sometimes used adverbially; as man came *walking*; The church stood *gleaming* among the trees.

All the primary derivatives amongst the English adverbs are of Saxon origin, and nearly all have been primary inflexions of nouns, pronouns, or adjectives.

3. English adverbs which come under the title of *secondary derivatives*, are formed in the following ways:—

(1.) By the affixes—

ly; as, wisely, cunningly.

This may be termed the *general* form of the adverb, when derived regularly from the corresponding adjective.

ward or *wards*;	as backward	*from* back.	Signifying *direction*.
	sidewards	" side.	
ways or *wise*;	as always,	" all.	
	likewise,	" like.	

The terminations *wise* and *ward* are only used with Saxon derivatives; *ly* is a *universal adverbial form* for *all* derivatives.

(2.) By the prefixes—

a; as, ashore, abroad, adrift, aground.
be; as, behind, betime.

These two prefixes are the remains of the prepositions *on* and *by*.

4. There are a great number of *compound* adverbs in the English language, formed by combining together various other parts of speech; as, *forthwith, peradventure, pell-mell, see-saw, sometimes, somewhere, thereabout, straightway, yesterday, to-morrow, hence-forward, headlong*, &c.

We may add also those derived from compound adjectives; as, *left-handedly, good-naturedly, ill-manneredly*, &c.

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9. STRUCTURE OF THE PREPOSITION.

471. Prepositions may be divided, in relation to their structure, into three kinds—1. Simple Original Prepositions; 2. Derivatives; 3. Verbal Prepositions.

1. The *simple original* prepositions of the English language are the following:—*At, by, for, from, in, on, of, till, to, through, up, with.*

Remark.—As prepositions are relational words, and always appear later in the development of a language than words conveying *notions*, it is probable that none of them are, strictly speaking, original roots, but that they have been formed out of nouns and

verbs. This formation, however, is so remote, that they may be considered practically as simple and original forms.

2. Of *derived* prepositions, many are formed from verbs, adjectives, and other parts of speech, by the use of the prefixes—

a; as, *amid, about, along, among, athwart, around. against, be;* as, *beside, before, below, beneath, between, beyond.*

Others are formed by combining two simple prepositions together; as, *into, unto, upon, within, without, throughout.*

3. *Verbal* prepositions are simply the imperative and participial forms of verbs used prepositionally; *e.g., Concerning, during, regarding, respecting, touching, save* and *except.*

All the prepositions of the first and second class are of Saxon origin; those of the third, of Latin.

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10. STRUCTURE OF THE CONJUNCTION.

472. English Conjunctions may be classed under three heads—1. Simple; 2. Derivative; 3. Compound.

1. The *simple* conjunctions of the English language are,—*And, or, but, if, as.*

2. The *derived* conjunctions are such as—*Nor, neither, either, than, though, whether, even, for, that, since, seeing, except.*

3. *Compound* conjunctions are such as are made up of two or more other words; as, *Howbeit, in as far as, nevertheless, moreover, wherefore, whereas, although,* &c.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS ON THE STRUCTURE OF THE ADVERB, PREPOSITION AND CONJUUCTION.

How are English adverbs divided according to their origin and structure?—Of what do the original adverbs consist?—Repeat eight or ten examples of them?—What is said of *then, there, these?* How are the primary derivatives formed?—Give examples of primary, derivatives formed in each way?—What is the origin and use of this class of adverbs?—How are adverbs belonging to the class of secondary derivatives formed?—Give examples of adverbs of this class formed in each way?—Give examples of compound adjectives?

PREPOSITION.

How may prepositions be divided according to their origin and structure?—Which are the simple original prepositions?—What is their probable remote origin?—How are derived prepositions formed?—Give examples.—What are verbal prepositions?—Give examples.

CONJUNCTION.

How may conjunctions be divided according to their structure?—Name the simple conjunctions.—Name the derived conjunctions—Name the compound conjunctions.

EXERCISE ON THE STRUCTURE OF THE ADVERB PREPOSITION AND CONJUNCTION.

1. Give a list of original adverbs, and of primary derivatives showing from what the latter are derived.

2. In the following, point out the affixes and prefixes, and determine the meaning of each:—*Always, shortly, daily, likewise, abroad, betimes, heavenward, forward, adrift, before.*

3. Give a list of twenty compound adverbs.

4. State which of the following prepositions are original, which derived, and which verbal:—*At, by, around, about, on, of, concern, ing, till, through, against, below, beyond, touching, during, up with, except.*

5. State which of the following conjunctions are original, which derived, and which compound:—*And, either, or, neither, but, than through, nevertheless, if, whether, even, since, although, moreover, seeing.*

These exercises should be followed by lessons on the Latin and Greek roots in the language, till exercises, such as the following can be readily done:—Give the Saxon noun and adjective roots, and illustrate each by giving words derived from them—Give the Latin noun roots, and words derived from each.—Give the Latin verb roots, and words derived from each.—Give the Latin adjective roots, and words derived from each.—Give the Greek noun roots, and words derived from each.—Give the Greek verb roots, and words derived from each.—Give the Greek adjective roots, and words derived from each, &c.

VOCABULARY OF ROOTS.

I. SAXON ROOTS.

Observation.—A great number of English words are derived from precisely corresponding Saxon words. Where the derivation is obvious, (as, smith, brother, tooth, &c., from smith, brothor, toth, &c.,) the Saxon words are not given in the vocabulary. The roots printed below are those which give origiu to a number of English words, the derivation of which is more disguised.

Saxon Nouns.

Æcer, *a field;* (Ger. Aker,) acre, God's-acre.

Bana, *death;* bane, baneful, henbane.

Bot, *satisfaction;* to boot, bootless.

Cyn, *race;* kin, kindred, kind.

Deor, *animal;* (Ger. Their,) deer, *Durham.*

Doel, *part;* (Ger. Theil,) dole, deal, to deal.

Dun, *a hill;* downs; most proper names ending in *don.*

Ea, eas, *water;* island, many names of places in *ey. Ouse.*

Feond, *enemy;* (Ger. Feind,) fiend, fiendish.

Fugal, *bird;* (Ger. Vogel,) fowl, fowler, fowling-piece.

Geard, *enclosure;* yard, garden.

Gorst, *furze;* gorse, gooseberry.

Ham, *dwelling;* home (Ger. Hein,) hamlet; names of places ending in *ham.*

Holm, *island;* Holms, Axholm, &c.

Hund, *dog;* (Ger. Hund,) hound, Hunt.

Hythe, *port;* Hythe, Rotherhythe.

Ing, *meadow;* the Ings, names of places in *ing.*

Leag, *field;* Lea, names of places in *ley.*

Maga, *stomach;* (Ger. Magen,) maw.

Mere, *lake;* (Ger. Merc,) *Mere,* names of places in *mere.*

Nœsse, *promontory;* Naze, names of places in *ness.*

Rice, *kingdom;* (Ger. Reich,) bishopric.

Sped, *success;* speed, Godspeed.

Stede, *station;* names of places in stead.

Stoc, Stow, } *place;* names of places in *stock* and *stow.*

Sund, *strait;* sound, Bomarsund.

Thorp, *village;* (Ger. Dorf,) names of places in *thorp.*

Tid, *time;* (Ger. Zeit,) tide, shrovetide, (*time and tide.*)

Wald, *wood;* (Ger. Wald,) weald wold, Walt-ham.

Weard, *guard;* ward, warden.

Wic, *dwelling;* Wick, and names of places ending in same.

Wirt, *root;* (Ger. Wurzel,) wort.

Wise, *manner;* (Ger. Weise,) in nowise, leastways.

Wylen, *slave;* villain.

Saxon Verbs.

Beordan, *to order;* (Ger. beiten,) bid, beadle.
Beorgan, *to protect;* (Ger. Borgen,) burgh, borough.
Bidan, *to wait;* bide, abide, abode.
Blœsan, *to blow;* (Ger. blasen,) blast, bluster, blossom.
Brucan, *to use;* broker, to brook.
Buan, *to cultivate;* (Ger. bauen,) boor, neighbour.
Bugan, *to bow;* (Ger. Biegen,) bow, bough, bay, elbow.
Ceapian, *to buy;* (Ger. kaufen,) cheap, chapman, chaffer, Cheapside, Chipping.
Cearcian, *to creak;* cank, chatter chirp. (Old Eng. chirk.)
Clypian, *to call;* old Eng yclept.
Cunnian, *to search;* to con, cunning, (Ger. kennen.)
Cwellan, *to slay;* quell, kill.
Deman, *to judge;* deem, doom.
Dragan, *to draw;* drag, draught, (Ger. tragen.)
Drigan, *to dry;* drought, drug, (Ger. trocken.)
Faran, *to go;* fare, farewell, ferry, thoroughfare.
Fengan, *to catch;* (Ger. fangen) finger, fang.
Frean, *to love;* (Cer. Freien,) friend.
Frician, *to jump;* freak, frog.
Fullian, *to corrupt;* foul, filth.
Galan, *to sing;* nightingale.
Gangen, *to go;* gang, gangway, (Ger. gehen.)
Glewan, *to shine;* glow, gleam, (Ger. gluhen.)
Grafan, *to dig;* (Ger. graben,) grave, engrave, groove.
Gripon, *to squeeze;* (Ger. grifen) gripe, grip.
Hebban, *to lift;* (Ger. heben,) heave.
Macien, *to make;* (Ger. macen,) make, mackle.
Mengan, *to mix;* (Ger. mengen) mingle, among.
Metsian, *to feed;* meat, mess.
Mœnan, *to think;* (Ger. meinan) mean, mind.
Plihtan, *to expose to danger;* plight.
Ræpan, *to bind;* wrap, reap, rope.
Reccan, *to care;* to reck, reckless.
Sceadan, *to divide;* scot, scatter, shed, watershed.
Sceiran, *to cut;* shear, shears, share, sheer, ploughshare, sear, score.
Slehan, *to kill;* (Ger. schlagen,) slay, slaughter, sleight, sly, (clever in stroke.)
Snican, *to creep;* sneak, snake.
Steorfan, *to die;* starve, (Ger. sterben.)
Stigan, *to ascend;* (Ger. steigen) stair, stage, story, stirrup.
Tellan, *to count;* (Ger. zahlen) tell, tale,
Teogan, *to draw;* tug.
Thinkan, *to seem;* methinks, (it seems to me.)
Thringan, *to press;* (Ger. dringen,) throng.
Wanian, *to fail;* wane, wan.
Wealden, *to govern;* wield, bretwalda, (Ger. Gewalt.)
Wenan, *to think;* ween.
Wenden, *to go;* wend, went, wander, (Ger. Wenden.)
Witan, *to know;* wit, wot, wise, (Ger. wissen.)
Wrecan, *to revenge;* wreak.
Writham, *to twist;* wreathe, writhe, wrath, wroth, wry.
Wunian, *to dwell;* (Ger. wohmen) wont.

Saxon Adjectives.

Ær, *before;* ere, early, erst.
Bald, *brave;* bold, ethelbold.
Eald, *old;* elder, alderman, Aldgate.
God, *good;* gospel, godsend.
Hal, *sound;* whole, wholesome, hale.
Halig, *holy;* (Ger. helig,) Halidoun.
Rein, *clean;* (Ger. rein,) rinse.
Rude, *red;* ruddy, Ruthin.
Soth, *true;* sooth, soothsayer.

II. Latin Roots—Nouns.

Ædes, *a building;* edifice.
Ævum, *an age;* coeval.
Ager, *a field;* agriculture.
Anima, *life;* animal.
Animus, *mind;* magnanimous.
Annus, *year;* annual.
Aqua, *water;* aquatic.
Arma, *weapons;* armour.
Articulus, *a little joint;* article.
Auris, *the ear;* aurist.
Aurum, *gold;* auriferous.
Auster, *south wind;* Australia.
Avis, *a bird;* aviary, augur.
Barba, *beard;* barber.
Bellum, *war;* rebel, bellicose.
Brachium, *the arm;* bracelet.
Calculus, *a little stone;* calculate.
Calor, *heat;* caloric.
Canis, *a dog;* canine.
Caput, *the head;* captain.
Carbo, *coal;* carbonic.
Carmen, *song;* charming.
Caro, *flesh;* carnal.
Catena, *chain;* concatenate.
Causa, *cause;* excuse.
Centrum, *middle;* centripetal.
Centum, *a hundred;* century.
Charta, *paper;* card.
Civis, *a citizen;* civil.
Cœlum, *heaven;* celestial.
Cor, *heart;* cordial.
Corpus, *body;* corporeal.
Crux, *cross;* crucify.
Culpa, *fault;* culpable.
Cura, *care;* curious.
Cutis, *skin;* cuticle.
Dens, *tooth;* dentist.
Deus, *God;* deity.
Dexter, *the right hand;* dexterous.
Dies, *a day;* diurnal.
Digitus, *a finger;* digit.
Domus, *a house;* domicile.
Equus, *a horse;* equestrian.
Exemplum, *instance;* example.
Fabula, *a fable;* fabulous.
Facies, *the face;* efface.
Fama, *report;* famous.
Femina, *woman;* female.
Ferrum, *iron;* farrier.
Filius, *a son;* filial.
Finis, *end;* final.
Flamma, *Flame;* inflame.
Flos, *flower;* flourish.
Folium, *leaf;* foliage.
Forma, *form;* formation.
Frater, *brother;* fraternal.
Frons, *forehead;* frontispiece.
Fumus, *smoke;* fumigate.
Fundus, *foundation;* profound.
Gens, *nation;* gentile.
Globus, *a sphere;* globular.
Gradus, *a step;* grade.
Gratia, *favour;* ingratiate.
Grex, *a flock;* congregate.
Hæres, *heir;* hereditary.
Homo, *man;* human.
Hora, *hour;* horary.
Hortus, *garden;* horticulture.
Hospes, *a guest;* hospitable.
Ignis, *fire;* ignite.
Insula, *island;* insular.
Iter, *journey;* itinerate.
Jugum, *yoke;* subjugate.
Jus, *right;* justice.
Juvenis, *a youth;* juvenile.

Labor, *labour;* laborious.
Lac, *milk;* lactation.
Lapis, *stone;* lapidary.
Laus, *praise;* laudatory.
Liber, *bark, book;* library.
Libra, *balance;* equilibrium.
Limen, *threshold;* preliminary.
Linea, *line;* delineate.
Lingua, *tongue;* linguist.
Litera, *letter;* literal.
Locus, *place;* locate.
Luna, *the moon;* lunatic.
Lux, *light;* lucifer.
Luxus, *luxury;* luxuriate.
Macula, *a spot;* immaculate.
Magister, *a master;* magistrate.
Mamma, *the breast;* mammalia.
Manus, *the hand;* manual.
Mare, *the sea;* marine.
Mars, *the god of war;* martial.
Mater, *mother;* maternal.
Materies, *matter;* material.
Mel, *honey;* mellifluous.
Mens, *mind;* mental.
Miles, *a soldier;* military.
Minæ, *threats;* menaces.
Modus, *manner;* mood.
Mola, *mill;* meal.
Moles, *mass;* demolish.
Mons, *mountain;* promontory.
Mors, *death;* immortal.
Mos, *manner;* morals.
Munus, *gift;* munificent.
Negotium, *business;* negotiate.
Nihil, *nothing;* annihilate.
Nomen, *a name;* nominal.
Nox, *night;* nocturnal.
Numerus, *number;* numeration.
Oculus, *the eye;* oculist.
Os, oris, *mouth;* oral.
Os, ossis, *bone;* ossify.
Ovum, *egg;* oval.
Pactus, *a treaty;* compact.
Palma, *a palm;* palmary.
Pars, *a part;* partial.
Pater, *a father;* paternal.
Pax, *peace;* pacify.
Pectus, *breast;* expectorate.
Pes, *foot;* biped.
Pilus (capillus), *hair;* pile, capillary.
Piscis, *fish,* piscatory.
Planta, *plant;* plantation.
Plumbum, *lead;* plumber.
Pœna, *punishment;* penal.
Pondus, *weight;* pound.
Populus, *people;* popular.
Præda, *booty;* predaceous.
Pretium, *price;* precious.
Puer, *boy;* puerile.
Quies, *rest;* quiet.
Radius, *spoke of wheel;* ray.
Radix, *root;* radical.
Rivus, *stream;* river.
Robur, *strength;* robust.
Rota, *wheel;* rotary.
Rus, *country;* rustic.
Sal, *salt;* saline.
Salus, *safety;* salvation.
Sanguis, *blood;* sanguine.
Sapor, *savour;* insipid.
Seculum, *the age;* secular.
Semen, *seed;* seminary.
Signum, *sign;* signify.
Sol, *sun;* solar.
Somnus, *sleep;* somnambulist.
Sors, *lot;* assort.
Spatium, *space;* expatiate.
Tabula, *table;* tabulate.
Tempus, *time;* temporary.
Terminus, *boundary;* exterminate.
Terra, *the earth;* terrestrial.
Testis, *witness;* attest.
Umbra, *shadow;* umbrageous.
Unda, a *wave;* inundate.
Urbs, *city;* urbanity.
Vacca, *cow;* vaccinate.
Vapor, *steam;* evaporate.
Vas, *a vessel;* vascular.
Velum, *veil;* revelation.
Vena, *vein;* venous.
Verbum, *word;* verb.
Vestis, *garment;* invest.
Via, *way;* obvious.
Vindex, *avenger;* vindicate.

Vinum, *wine;* vintage.
Vir, *a man;* virile.
Virtus, *valour:* virtue.
Vita, *life;* vitality.
Vitium, *fault;* vice.
Voluptas, *pleasure;* voluptuous.
Votum, *vow;* votary.
Vulgus, *common people;* vulgar.
Vulnus, *wound;* vulnerable.

LATIN VERBS.

Æstimare, *value;* estimate.
Ago (actus) *act;* transact.
Amo, *love;* amatory.
Aperio, *open;* aperture.
Appello, *call;* appellation.
Apto, *fit;* aptitude.
Audio, *hear;* audible.
Augeo, *increase;* augment.
Cado (casum) *fall;* accident.
Cædo (cæsum) *cut;* incision.
Cano, *sing;* chant.
Capio (captum) *take;* reception.
Cedo (cessum) *go;* accede.
Cerno (cretum) *perceive;* discern.
Clamo, *call out;* exclaim.
Claudo (clausum) *shut;* include.
Colo (cultus) *till;* cultivate.
Credo, *believe;* credit.
Creo, *create;* creation.
Cresco, *to grow;* increase.
Criminor, *judge, accuse;* discriminate.
Cumbo, *lie;* succumb.
Curro (cursum), *run;* occur.
Dico (dictum), *say;* predict.
Doceo (doctus), *teach;* doctor.
Doleo, *grieve;* condole.
Dono, *give;* donation.
Dormio, *sleep;* dormouse.
Duco, *lead;* conduct.
Emo (emptus), *buy;* redeem.
Eo (itum), *go;* exit.
Experior (expertus), *try;* experiment.
Facio (factus), *do;* effect.
Fallo, *deceive;* fallacious.
Fero (latus), *bear;* confer, translate.
Ferveo, *boil;* fervent.
Fido, *trust;* confide.
Fingo (fictus), *frame;* fiction.
Flecto (flexus), *bend;* flexible.
Fluo, *flow;* fluid.
Frango (fractus), *break;* fracture.
Frico, *rub;* friction.
Frigeo, *I am cold;* frigid.
Fugio, *flee;* fugitive.
Fundo (fusus), *pour;* diffuse.
Gero (gestus), *bear;* belligerent.
Gradior (gressus), *step;* congress.
Habeo, *have:* habit.
Hæreo, *stick;* adhere.
Ignoro, *not to know;* ignorant.
Imperio, *command;* imperious.
Jaceo, *lie;* adjacent.
Jacio, *cast;* eject.
Judico, *judge;* adjudicate.
Jungo, *join;* conjunction.
Juro, *swear;* jury.
Labor (lapsus), *slide;* relapse.
Lædo (læsum), *strike;* collision.
Lego, *send;* delegate.
Lego (lectum), *choose;* elect.
Levo, *raise;* lever.
Libero, *to free;* liberate.
Liceo, *to be allowed;* license.
Ligo, *to bind;* obligation.
Linquo, *leave;* relinquish.
Loquor, *speak;* eloquent.
Ludo, *play;* prelude.
Luo, *wash;* dilute.
Mando, *commit to;* commend.
Maneo, *remain;* mansion.
Medeor, *heal;* remedy.
Memini, *remember;* memory.
Mercor, *buy;* merchant.
Mergo (mersum), *plunge;* immerse.
Mineo, *to project;* eminent.
Misceo (mixus), *mix:* miscellaneous.
Mitto, *send;* remit.
Moneo, *advise;* monitor.

Mordeo, *bite;* remorse.
Moveo (motus), *move;* motion.
Nascor (natus), *to be born;* innate.
Necto, *bind;* connect.
Nego, *deny;* negation.
Noceo, *hurt;* noxious.
Nosco (notus), *know;* denote.
Nuncio, *make known;* announce.
Opto, *wish;* optative.
Orno, *adorn;* ornament.
Pando, *to stretch;* expand.
Pareo, *appear;* apparent.
Paro, *prepare;* repair.
Pascor (pastum), *feed;* repast.
Patior, *suffer;* patient.
Pello (pulsus), *drive;* repel.
Pendeo, *hang;* depend.
Peto, *seek;* petition.
Placeo, *please;* placid.
Placo, *appease;* placate.
Plaudo, *clap;* applaud.
Plecto, *twine;* complex.
Plico, *fold;* complicated.
Ploro, *implore;* deplore.
Pono (positus), *place;* deposit.
Porto, *carry;* import.
Precor, *pray;* imprecate.
Prehendo, *lay hold of;* apprehend.
Premo (pressus), *press;* impress.
Probo, *prove;* probation.
Pungo, *prick;* pungent.
Purgo, *cleanse;* purgatory.
Puto, *think;* repute.
Quæro, *seek;* query.
Queror, *complain;* querulous.
Rapio (raptus), *seize;* rapacious.
Rego, *rule;* regent.
Rideo, *laugh;* deride.
Rigeo, *to be stiff;* rigid.
Rumpo (ruptus), *break;* rupture.
Salio (saltum), *leap;* assail.
Scando, *climb;* ascend.
Scribo (scriptus), *write;* transscribe.
Seco, *cut;* sect.
Sedeo, *sit;* subside.
Sentio, *feel;* sentiment.
Sequor, *follow;* persecute.
Servio, *serve;* servile.
Servo, *keep;* preservation.
Sisto, *stop;* persist.
Soleo, *to be accustomed;* insolent.
Solvo, *loose;* resolve.
Sono, *sound;* consonant.
Specio (spectus), *see:* inspect.
Spiro, *breathe;* inspire.
Statuo, *appoint;* constitute.
Sterno (stratus), *scatter;* prostrate.
Sto, *stand;* station.
Stringo (strictus), *draw tight;* strict.
Sumo (sumptus), *take;* assume.
Tango (tactus), *touch;* intact.
Temno, *despise;* contemn.
Tendo, *stretch;* attend.
Teneo, *hold;* tenaceous.
Terreo, *frighten;* terrify.
Texo, *weave;* textile.
Timeo, *fear;* timid.
Tingo, *dye;* tincture.
Tolero, *bear;* tolerate.
Tollo, *raise;* extol.
Torreo, *roast;* torrid.
Torqueo (tortus), *wrest;* extort.
Traho (tractus), *draw;* attract.
Tribuo, *bestow;* attribute.
Trudo, *thrust;* intrude.
Tumeo, *swell;* tumour.
Utor (usus), *use;* useful.
Vado, *go;* evade.
Valeo, *prevail;* valid.
Veho, *carry;* vehicle.
Venio (ventus), *come;* advent.
Verto, *turn;* convert.
Video (visum), *see;* provide.
Vineo (victus), *conquer;* invincible.
Vivo, *live;* vivify.
Voco, *call;* invoke.
Volo, *fly;* volatile.
Volvo, *roll;* involve.
Voro, *devour;* voracious.

Latin Adjectives.

Acer, *sharp;* acid.
Æquus, *equal;* equator.
Albus, *white;* albino.
Alter, *another;* alternate.
Altus, *high;* exalt.
Antiquus, *old;* antique.
Asper, *rough;* asperity.
Bonus, *good;* bounty.
Brevis, *short;* brief.
Cautus, *wary;* cautious.
Cavus, *hollow;* cavern.
Certus, *sure;* certify.
Coctus, *cooked;* concoct.
Densus, *thick;* dense.
Dignus, *worthy;* dignify.
Dulcis, *sweet;* dulcet.
Durus, *hard;* endure.
Externus, *outward;* external.
Exterior, *outer;* exterior.
Extremus, *outermost;* extreme.
Facilis, *easy;* facile.
Felix, *happy;* felicity.
Firmus, *strong;* firm.
Fortis, *strong;* fortify.
Grandis, *great;* aggrandise.
Gravis, *heavy;* gravity.
Inferior, *lower;* inferior.
Infernus, *low;* infernal.
Internus, *inner;* internal.
Latus, *broad;* oblate.
Lentus, *slow;* relent.
Longus, *long;* longitude.
Malus, *evil;* malefactor.
Maturus, *ripe;* mature.
Medius, *middle;* mediator.
Minor, *less;* diminish.
Obscurus, *dark;* obscure.
Omnis, *all;* omnipotent.
Planus, *level;* plain.
Plenus, *full;* plenty.
Plus, *more;* plural.
Posterus, *last;* posterity.
Primus, *first;* primary.
Privus, *secret;* private.
Purus, *pure;* purify.
Qualis, *of what kind;* quality.
Quantus, *how much;* quantity.
Quot, *how many;* quotient.
Rarus, *thin;* rare.
Sacer, *sacred;* sacrament.
Sanctus, *holy;* sanctify.
Sanus, *sound;* insane.
Senex, *old;* senile.
Similis, *like;* similar.
Solus, *alone;* solitude.
Surdus, *deaf;* absurd.
Tenuis, *thin;* attenuate.
Tres, *three;* triennial.
Vanus, *vain;* vaunt.
Vetus, *old;* veteran.

III. Greek Roots—Nouns.

Aer (*αηρ*), *the air;* aeriel.
Agogos (*αγωγος*), *leader;* demagogue.
Agon (*αγων*), *contest;* antagonist.
Angelos (*αγγελος*), *messenger;* angel.
Anthos (*ανθος*), *flower;* polyanthus.
Anthropos (*ανθρωπος*), *man;* philanthrophy.
Arctos (*αρκτος*), *bear;* arctic.
Arithmos (*αριθμος*), *number;* arithmetic.
Astron (*αστρον*) *star;* astronomy.
Biblion (*βιβλιον*), *book;* bible.
Bios (*βιος*), *life;* biography.
Chole (*χολη*), *bile;* melancholy.
Chronos (*χρονος*) *time;* chronology.
Cosmos (*κοσμος*), *world;* cosmogony.
Cratos (*κρατος*), *rule;* democrat.
Daimon (*δαιμον*), *spirit;* demon.
Demos (*δημος*), *people;* democrat.
Doxa (*δοξα*), *opinion;* orthodox.
Dogma (*δογμα*), *opinion;* dogmatic.
Dunamis (*δυναμις*) *strength;* dynamics.
Ethos (*εθος*), *manner;* ethics.

Gamos (γαμος), *marriage;* polygamy.
Ge (γη), *the earth;* geography.
Genos (γενος), *kind;* heterogeneous.
Glossa (γλωσσα), *tongne;* glossary.
Gonia (γωνια), *corner;* diagonal.
Gramma (γραμμα), *letter;* grammar.
Haima (αἱμα), *blood;* hemorrhage.
Hairesis (αἱρεσις), *choosing;* heresy.
Helios (ἡλιος), *sun;* perihelion.
Hemera (ἡμερα), *day;* ephemeral.
Hippos (ἱππος), *horse;* hippodrome.
Hodos (ὁδος), *way;* period.
Hudor (ὑδὼρ), *water;* hydrostatics.
Ichthus (ιχθυς), *a fish;* ichthyology.
Kephale (κεφαλη), *head;* cephalic.
Kuklos (κυκλος), *circle;* cycle.
Laos (λαος), *people;* laity.
Latreia (λατρεια), *service;* idolater.
Logos (λογος) *reason;* geology.
Lusis (λυσις), *loosing;* analysis.
Martyr (μαρτυρ), *witness;* martyr.
Mathema (μαθεμα), *science;* mathematics.
Metron (μετρον), *measure;* symmetry.
Meter (μητηρ) *mother;* metropolis.
Muthos (μυθος), *myth;* mythology.
Naus (ναυς), *ship;* nautical.
Nesos (νησος), *island;* Polynesia.
Nomos (νομος), *law;* astronomy.
Oikos (οικος), *house;* œconomy.
Onoma (ονομα), *name;* synonyme.
Ophthalmos (οφθαλμος), *eye;* ophthalmia.
Organon (οργανον), *instrument;* organic.
Ornis (ορνις), *bird;* ornithology.
Pais (παις), *child;* pædagogue.
Pathos (παθος), *feeling;* pathology.
Petra (πετρα), *rock;* petrify.
Phone (φωνη), *voice;* phonetics.
Phos (φως), *light;* phosphorus.
Phusis (φυσις), *nature;* physics.
Pneuma (πνευμα), *wind;* pneumatics.
Polemos (πολεμος), *war;* polemic.
Polis (πολις) *city;* politics.
Potamos (ποταμος), *river;* hippopotamus.
Pous (πους), *foot;* antipodes.
Psyche (ψυχη), *soul;* psychology.
Put (πυρ), *fire;* pyramid.
Sphaira (σφαιρα), *ball;* sphere.
Stasis (στασις), *standing;* apostasy.
Strophe (στροφη), *turning;* apostrophe.
Taphos (ταφος), *tomb;* epitaph.
Techne (τεχνη), *art;* technical.
Theos (Θεος), *God;* theology.
Thesis (θεσις), *placing;* parenthesis.
Topos (τοπος), *place;* topography.
Tupos (τυπος), *stamp;* type.
Zoon (ζωον), *animal;* zoology.

Greek Verbs.

Archo (αρχω), *to command;* monarch.
Ballo (βαλλω), *to throw;* symbol.
Calupto (καλυπτω), *cover;* Apocalypse.
Gignosco (γιγνωσκω), *know;* prognostic.
Grapho (γραφω), *write;* autograph.
Miseo (μισεω) *hate;* misanthrophist.

Optomai (οπτομαι), *see;* optics.
Orao (οραω), *see;* panorama.
Phantazo (φανταζω), *appear;* phantom.
Phaino (φαινω), *show,* phenomenon.
Poieo (ποιεω), *make;* poetry.
Psallo (ψαλλο), *sing;* psalm.
Skopeo (σκοπεω), *see;* telescope.
Stello (στελλω), *send;* apostle.
Tasso (τασσω), *arrange;* syntax.
Theaomai (θεαομαι), *see;* theatre.
Temno (τεμνω), *cut;* atom.
Trepo (τρεπω), *turn;* tropics.

GREEK ADJECTIVES.

Autos (αυτος), *self;* autobiography.
Calos (καλος), *beautiful;* calligraphy.
Gumnos (γυμνος), *naked;* gymnastics
Heteros (ἑτερος), *another;* heterogeneous.
Hieros (ἱερος), *sacred;* hierarchy.
Isos (ισος), *equal;* isosceles.
Monos (μονος), *alone;* monotonous.
Necros (νεκρος), *dead;* necropolis.
Neos (νεος), *new;* neology.
Oligos (ολιγος), *few;* oligarchy.
Orthos (ορθος), *right;* orthodox.
Oxys (οξυς), *sharp;* oxygen.
Philos (φιλος), *friendly;* philanthropist.
Polus (πολυς), *many;* polygon.
Protos (πρωτος), *first;* prototype.
Thermos (θερμος), *warm;* thermometer.

The following are a few specimens of the French words, which have been the *medium* of introducing the original Latin roots in English.

Cheval (Lat. caballus), *horse;* chevalier, chivalry, cavalry.
Charte (Lat carta) *paper;* chart, charter, cartoon, cartouch.
Campagne (Lat. campus), *field;* camp, campaign, champaign.
Chantêr (Lat. cano), *sing;* chant, enchant, enchanting.
Féodalité (Lat. fidelitas), *feudal;* fealty.
Merveillle (Lat. Mirabile) *wonder;* marvel, marvellous.
Parler, *to speak;* parley, Parliament.
Souverain (Lat. superus), *sovereign;* sovereignty.
Vue (Lat. video), *see;* view.

ERRATA.

The exercise, page 43, should be numbered 6 not 5.

In 547, page 154—for relation—read relations; and for casual read causal.

The exercise on same case page 181, should be numbered 38th not 21st.

The exercise on the syntax of the adverb, page 226, should be numbered 50th not 34th.

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